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## SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES<sup>\*</sup>

### AN HISTORICAL SKETCH

#### II. THE ACADEMY PERIOD

[In the collection of material for this division of the Sketch, I have received assistance from so many quarters that it would be a hopeless undertaking to attempt the making of individual acknowledgments. The principals of academies and other secondary schools in different parts of the country have very kindly sent me printed matter relating to their several institutions, including, in some instances, volumes of considerable size and of great historical value. At no distant date I hope to revise the articles thoroughly, filling in some of the gaps which my best endeavors have thus far failed to fill; and I shall be heartily thankful to anyone who will put me in the way of finding material to supply the present deficiencies.

It will not be invidious to express my special thanks to two persons who have gone to much trouble in the endeavor to further my researches and have thereby rendered me very valuable aid. I refer to Miss Katherine Gleason, A.M., graduate student in the University of California for the year 1896-7; and Dr. C. F. P. Bancroft, Principal of the Phillips Academy at Andover.—E. E. B.]

PLATO taught his disciples in the grove of Academus, and his school was called in consequence the Academy. But how did the name come to be applied to humble schools of secondary education on this western continent? The question has given rise to some discussion, which is summed up in a familiar passage from the writings of Mr. Henry Barnard. We cannot do better here than to repeat this passage in full:

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The earliest English or American use of *academy*, as applied to an institution of instruction for youth, we find in Milton's letter to Samuel Hartlib, in 1643, where the academy, by which he designated his institute for a complete and generous culture, covers the whole field of the grammar school, the college within the university, and the university. The non-conformists applied the term to their boarding schools, which in grade of instruction, resemble nearly the English Public School, or the endowed grammar school. In this sense Defoe uses the term in his *Essay on Projects*, first published in 1699, and at the same time employs it, in the general English usage, to designate an association of philologists to improve and perfect the English tongue like the French academy. In the essay cited, Defoe gives the plan of an Academy for Music, with hints for cheap Sunday concerts; an Academy for Military Science and Practice; and an Academy for Women—the earliest project of a school of this grade for women in England or America by near a century. From Defoe we can easily trace the earliest use of the term in this country to Franklin, who acknowledges, in his autobiography, his indebtedness to Defoe's *Essay on Projects* as having influenced some of the principal events of his life, and designates his plan for public education of youth in Pennsylvania, a *project of an academy*.

After Franklin's pamphlet, which had a very wide circulation, and which will be found bound up with other pamphlets of the revolutionary period in most of the old libraries of the country, the term, and the institution itself became quite common. In many states before 1800, Academies were established with Boards of Trustees, and certain corporate powers after the plan of Franklin, and not a few of them bore his name.<sup>1</sup>

A little may now be added to this account. A brief paragraph relating to the academies of the Dissenters is found in the *American Quarterly Register*, Vol. II, p. 255 (Andover, Mass., 1830). A more extended account appears in the *Quarterly Journal of Education*, Vol. I, p. 49 ff. (London, 1831). Oliver Cromwell established a college at Durham. After the restoration this became a private theological academy at Rathmes, or Rathmill, as another account has it. In the reigns of Charles II and James II various non-conformist ministers, men who had been educated in the English universities and had been deprived of their livings in the English Church under the Act of Uniformity, established academies for the education of the sons of non-conformists. This was done the more freely after the passage of the Toleration Act of 1689. By this means they sought to maintain a high standard of learning in the non-conformist bodies, members of which were excluded from the universities; and to secure to themselves an hon-

<sup>1</sup> *American Journal of Education*, Vol. XXX, p. 760.

orable means of support to replace their lost benefices. The training in these schools was intended chiefly as a preparation of ministers for the dissenting congregations; but the classic languages were taught, and efforts were made to provide liberal culture for those destined to other than spiritual callings. The course of study seems to have been five years in length for those who could afford so long tuition; and to have been shortened to three years for those who were dependent upon charity for their schooling.

One of the earliest of these schools was set up by Mr. Woodhouse at Sheriffhales, in Shropshire. Mr. Matthew Warren conducted one at Taunton; Mr. Doolittle, one at Islington and Wimbledon. Several others are named,<sup>1</sup> among them that of Mr. Charles Morton at New-

<sup>1</sup>The article in the *American Quarterly Register*, referred to above, mentions an academy at Shrewsbury, "of more celebrity than either" that at Rathmes or the one at Taunton; also others at Hoxton Square, London, Exeter, Bridgewater, and Coventry. It adds: "Flourishing academies now [1830] exist at Hoxton, Bristol, Homer-ton, and several other places;" and enumerates among the most distinguished tutors, Theophilus Gale, Thomas Vincent, Matthew Henry, and John Pye Smith.

The Rev. Charles Hammond, in his well-known article on New England Academies and Classical Schools, referring to their English prototypes, mentions the academy at Kibworth in Leicestershire, at which Doddridge entered in 1718; that at Northampton, over which Doddridge himself presided; and that at London, where Isaac Watts was educated. The article on Dissenting Academies in the *Quarterly Journal of Education*, referred to above, makes mention of legal processes undertaken against those who presided over such academies, and the resolute defense which they set up against these proceedings; and adds in a footnote: "The history of these circumstances, and the arguments, are given in CALAMY'S *Continuation*, Vol. I." The same article refers to TOULMIN'S *Historical View of the State of the Protestant Dissenters in England*, etc. In its closing paragraph appears the promise of another article giving an account of more recently established academies; but I have not been able to discover a fulfillment of this promise.

In later years the surviving English academies seem to have adopted pretty generally the title of *college*; except that the name *academy* is retained in schools for young ladies. This statement is made in a private letter from Dr. C. F. P. Bancroft of the Phillips Andover Academy, on the authority of the Rev. Mr. Lovett of the Religious Tract Society of London.

For convenience we may add here the following references to authorities on the English academies, taken from LEE'S *Daniel Defoe*, cited in the text: On p. 7 of Vol. I, Walter Wilson is referred to as a recognized authority on the subject. On p. 10 of the same volume appears this footnote, relating to an attack on the academies by Samuel Wesley, who, like Defoe, had been under Mr. Morton's instruction: "A Letter from a Country Divine to his Friend in London, concerning the Education of the Dissenters in their Private Academies, etc.," 1704; "A Defense of a Letter concerning the Education of the Dissenters, etc.," by Samuel Wesley, 1704; "A Reply to Mr. Palmer's

ington Green. Now, it was in this academy at Newington Green that Daniel Defoe himself received his early training. He is believed to have spent five years at the institution, from the age of fourteen to that of nineteen. In after years, Mr. Defoe, having become an adherent of the established church, gave an unfavorable account of the training afforded at the academies of the non-conformists; but he made a special exception in favor of his own former master, Mr. Morton. The glimpse which his account affords us of Mr. Morton's instruction is very pleasing. At Newington, he says, "the master or tutor read all his lectures, gave all his systems, whether of philosophy or divinity, in English, and had all his declaimings and dissertations in the same tongue. And though the scholars from that place were not destitute in the languages, yet it is observed of them, they were by this made masters of the English tongue, and more of them excelled in that particular than of any school at that time."<sup>1</sup> In 1685 this Mr. Morton removed to New England, and there became vice president of Harvard College. The presence of a former master of such an English school at the center of learning of the American colonies, would have been likely to render the English use of the word *academy* familiar, at least to New England scholars, even if other circumstances tending to the same result had been wanting. It is likely, in fact, that the English use of the word was common in the Puritan colonies during the century preceding the establishment of academies in this country.

It may not be a wholly fanciful suggestion that one effective agent in the dissemination of both the term and the idea, especially after the establishment of Franklin's Academy at Philadelphia, was the Rev. George Whitefield. This remarkable man traveled again and again through the whole length of the colonies from New Hampshire to Georgia, preaching, exhorting, awakening; conversing alike with ministers, colonial governors, and negro slaves; indifferent to no aspect of colonial life; causing division and dissension—anything but *intel-Vindication of the Learning, Loyalty, Morals, and most Christian Behavior of the Dissenters towards the Church of England*," by Samuel Wesley, 1707. Two of these pamphlets were replied to by Samuel Palmer, who afterwards conformed to the church.

I have not had access to any of these works. It is to be hoped that our English brethren may yet give us a full account of institutions which stand in so interesting a relation with a great educational movement on this side of the water.

<sup>1</sup>"Present State of Parties," etc., p. 319. Quoted by LEE, *Daniel Defoe; His Life and Recently Discovered Writings*. London: 1896; Vol. I, p. 9.



lectual stagnation. He was deeply interested in Tennent's Log College at Neshaminy, and the younger Tennents were among his most devoted coadjutors.<sup>1</sup> The existing colleges, particularly Harvard, attracted his attention, and his coming left a deep mark on our oldest institution of higher learning. He corresponded with the founders of the College of New Jersey, and did what he could to further their enterprise.<sup>2</sup> He secured substantial assistance for the Rev. Eleazer Wheelock's Indian school, the institution which developed into Dartmouth College; and sought to enlist others in giving to both this school and Harvard College.<sup>3</sup> His friendship with Benjamin Franklin is well known. When Franklin founded his academy, the building secured for the school was the meetinghouse originally built to accommodate the crowds who had flocked to hear Whitefield on the occasion of his early visits to Philadelphia; and Franklin had corresponded with his friend, the preacher, upon this subject. Franklin writes that the last time he saw Whitefield, the latter consulted with him about his purpose of transforming his orphan house in Georgia into a college.<sup>4</sup> When this college project failed, in 1767, because of disagreement with the Archbishop of Canterbury, Whitefield wrote to the governor of Georgia: "I now purpose to superadd a public academy to the Orphan House, as the College of Philadelphia was constituted a public academy, as well as charitable school, for some time before its present college charter was granted in 1755;" and in a note referring to the College of Philadelphia he adds: "This college was originally built, above twenty-eight years ago, for a charity school and a preaching place for me."<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The following passage is taken from Whitefield's journal for November 22, 1739: "Set out for Neshaminy (twenty miles from Trent Town), where old Mr. Tennent lives and keeps an academy. . . . It happens very providentially that Mr. Tennent and his brethren are appointed to be a presbytery by the synod, so that they intend breeding up gracious youths, and sending them out into our Lord's vineyard. The place wherein the young men study now is, in contempt, called *the college*. It is a log house, about twenty feet long and nearly as many broad; and, to me, it seemed to resemble the school of the old prophets."

The fact that the school was intended particularly for the training of candidates for the ministry, is probably Mr. Whitefield's especial reason for calling it an *academy*.

<sup>2</sup> TYERMAN, *The Life of Rev. George Whitefield*, Vol. II, pp. 227, 255, 256, 322-324.

<sup>3</sup> *Idem*, pp. 471, 473, 474.

<sup>4</sup> *Idem*, Vol. I, p. 375.

<sup>5</sup> TYERMAN, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 528.

Doubtless many agencies were at work preparing the minds of men for the new institution. The significant fact that after the Revolution academies sprang up in all parts of the new nation, prompts the inquiry as to a possible center from which the influences tending to this result may have radiated. If such a single center of radiation existed, it was in all probability the academy at Philadelphia; and Whitefield very likely served as one agent for the extension of its influence. That influence must have spread also through other channels, of which we have now no trace. It is to be hoped that some of these may yet be brought to light.

But the establishment of schools of this type prior to the Revolution was sporadic and fitful. The real academy period did not begin till independence had been declared and the cloud of war had begun to lift. The movement which then set in had a well defined point of departure, so far as the more northern region was concerned, in the Phillips Academy at Andover. This was the recognized parent and prototype of a goodly company of schools of the new order. It would be of interest to trace an immediate connection between the academy at Andover and that at Philadelphia, if such connection existed.<sup>1</sup> But in the absence of direct evidence as to the considerations which led to the adoption of the name *academy* for the latter school, it has been found thus far impossible, even after a somewhat extended search, to establish such relationship. The Andover school resembled in some respects its predecessor in Philadelphia. In other particulars, as, for example, its strong theological bias, it was more like its English namesakes. It seems, so far as evidence has come to light, quite possible that the suggestion as to its name, and perhaps also as to its essential character, may have come directly from England.

It will be in order for us now to trace, so far as we can, the first steps in the establishment of schools of this type in the several states.

The academy at Philadelphia, formally opened on the 7th of January, 1751, in accordance with the "project" of Benjamin Franklin, seems to have been the first institution to bear the name in this country. This was at the outset a private undertaking, entered into by twenty-four leading citizens, who associated themselves together as a board of trustees. The institution was incorporated in 1753. Its object was to give instruction "in the dead and living Languages, par-

<sup>1</sup>Dr. Steiner evidently thinks that the idea of the academy came to Connecticut directly from Franklin. See *The History of Education in Connecticut*, p. 48.

ticularly their Mother-Tongue, and all useful Branches of liberal Arts and Science." The following preamble introduces the articles of incorporation :

*Whereas*, the well-being of a society depends on the education of their youth, as well as, in great measure, the eternal welfare of every individual, by impressing on their tender minds principles of morality and religion, instructing them in the several duties they owe to the society in which they live, and one towards another, giving them the knowledge of languages, and other parts of useful learning necessary thereto, in order to render them serviceable in the several public stations to which they may be called, etc.

The reasons which Franklin presented to the Common Council of the city of Philadelphia for the establishment of the academy were four in number: "1. That the youth of Pennsylvania may have an opportunity of receiving a good education at home . . . ." "2. That a number of our natives will hereby be qualified to bear magistracies and execute other offices of public trust . . . ." "3. That a number of the poorer sort will hereby be qualified to act as schoolmasters in the country . . . ." "4. It is thought that a good academy may draw numbers of students from the neighboring provinces, . . . which will be an advantage to our traders, artisans and owners of houses and lands." The Common Council subsidized the school, and the members of the board of trustees raised a goodly sum among themselves. Fees were charged of the students in attendance, but special provision was made for the remission of fees to poor students; and the important provision was adopted that the same trustees should maintain charity schools in Philadelphia of a lower grade than the academy itself.

The academy proper, as organized, comprised three schools, the Latin, the English, and the mathematical. There seems to have been no hint of any intention to make the academy a preparatory school for some higher institution. Under the direction of Mr. William Smith, who became a teacher in the school in 1754, a philosophical school was added to the other three, and in 1755 the institution was reincorporated as "The College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia, in the Province of Pennsylvania." This college was

<sup>1</sup> It is interesting to compare with this thrifty proposal the complaint of "Philo Marilandicus," in 1754, that Philadelphia was then drawing £5000 sterling a year from Maryland, owing to the fact that at least an hundred Marylanders were being educated at the Philadelphia academy. (See STEINER, *History of Education in Maryland*, p. 29).

finally merged into the University of Pennsylvania. It is not to our present purpose to record the steps by which this change was made. □

Various other beginnings in the establishment of academies were made previous to the Revolutionary War, though it was not until the shadow of that great conflict was withdrawn that time or money or interest was devoted in any considerable degree to such undertakings.

An important school, which seems to foreshadow the new order of things, had been established at Lebanon, Conn., in 1743.<sup>1</sup> A school which had been opened at New London, Pa., in 1741 was in 1767 removed to Delaware, and became the Newark Academy. In 1748 the Friends' School was established at Wilmington, Del., the oldest school having a continuous existence in that state. Secondary studies were not, however, introduced into this school until 1786. Hopewell Academy was founded by the Baptists of New Jersey in 1756. A "Union School" was established at Germantown, Pa., in 1759. A "High School" was opened in the same place in 1761. The Dummer School was opened at Byfield, Mass., in 1763. It was incorporated as an academy in 1782. A school was organized at Plainfield, Conn., in 1770, which received a charter as an academy fourteen years later. The Union School, of New London, Conn., was incorporated in 1774. Prince Edward Academy, in Virginia, was opened to students in January 1776. In 1777 its name was changed to Hampden-Sidney Academy, and in 1783 it was incorporated as Hampden-Sidney College.<sup>2</sup>

Lower Marlboro Academy, in Maryland, received in 1778 the proceeds of the sale of property belonging to the free school of Calvert county, which had fallen into decay. This academy had been erected and supported at private expense. It was the first academy incorporated in Maryland. Washington Academy, in Somerset county,

<sup>1</sup> The Lebanon School, which was the *schola illustris* of eastern Connecticut under Master [Nathan] Tisdale, from 1749 to 1787, was a private enterprise of twelve citizens of Lebanon, of which Jonathan Trumbull, the Revolutionary governor, the "Brother Jonathan" of Washington's heart, was one, who in 1743 combined to secure better advantages for their children than the common school or transient teachers could give. By the articles of agreement, it was started "for the education of our own children and such others as we shall agree with. A Latin scholar is to be computed at 35s. old tenor, for each quarter, and a reading scholar at 30s. for each quarter—each one to pay according to the number of children that he sends, and the learning they are improved upon—whether the learned tongues, reading and history, or reading and English only." *American Journal of Education*, Vol. XXVIII, p. 793.

<sup>2</sup> ADAMS, Thomas *Jefferson and the University of Virginia*, pp. 227-230.

Maryland, was legally established in 1779, having been conducted as a private enterprise for the twelve years previous. Washington Seminary, in the state of New York, was founded in 1779. In 1831 it was chartered as Claverack Academy. Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., was incorporated in 1780, having been opened as the Phillips School in 1778. Phillips Academy, at Exeter, N. H., was incorporated in 1781. The old grammar school at Fairfield, Conn., was succeeded in 1781 by the "Staples Free School," an endowed academy. President Dwight conducted a famous academy, coeducational, at Greenfield Hill, Conn., from 1783 to 1796. In Massachusetts, again, the Leicester Academy dates from 1784, and the Derby Academy at Hingham was incorporated the same year.

Clinton Academy, at Easthampton, Long Island, was erected in 1784. It was incorporated by the legislature of New York in 1817, and was the first academical institution incorporated by act of the legislature in that state. Previous to 1817 the Regents had incorporated forty academies. The Flatbush Academy, known as "Erasmus Hall," on Long Island, was opened in 1787. Morris Academy, at Morristown, N. J., was organized in 1791. The Bingham School was established at Pittsboro, N. C., in 1793.

It is evident that a new interest in secondary education had arisen, which manifested itself in a different kind of institution from that with which the early colonists had been familiar.

Mr. George H. Martin suggests the following reasons for the marked decline of the old grammar schools which characterized this period in Massachusetts: The district system had turned aside educational interest from a town institution to the local schools of lower grade; with material prosperity, a commercial spirit had arisen which was unfavorable to the scholarly traditions of the grammar schools; the ministers were less potential than in the early days; the effective zeal of itinerant preachers had led people to lay less store by the thorough education of their ministers than formerly; and immediately after the Revolution general poverty prevailed, making the support of town schools of high grade a difficult matter.

It is probable that some of these causes were at work in other parts of the country; but we must look farther for an explanation of the kind of institution which was chosen to replace the grammar schools. This inquiry, however, may be postponed for the present.

The Rev. W. Winterbotham, writing in 1796, presents the follow-

ing facts regarding the secondary education of the several states at that time:

*New Hampshire.*—The old laws required every town of one hundred families to keep a grammar school. This law fell somewhat into neglect before the war, and still more in later years. The unhappy state of science and of virtue during this period excited philanthropic persons to devise other means of education. The result was the founding of academies. The Phillips Academy at Exeter is particularly described, and those at New Ipswich, Atkinson, Amherst, Charleston, and Concord are mentioned more briefly.

*Massachusetts.*—The laws relating to elementary schools and grammar schools in towns are mentioned and the remark follows:

These laws respecting schools are not so well regarded in many parts of the state, as the wise purposes which they were intended to answer, and the happiness of the people require.

Of Boston it is said, "There are seven public schools supported wholly at the expense of the town, and in which the children of *every* class of citizens freely associate." "Perhaps there is not a town in the world the youth of which more fully enjoy the benefits of school education, than at Boston."<sup>1</sup>

The writer continues: "Next in importance to the grammar schools are the academies, in which, as well as in the grammar schools, young citizens are fitted for admission to the university." Mention is made of the Dummer, Phillips, Leicester, Williamstown, and Taunton academies, and the Derby School at Hingham.

*Maine.*—Four academies are mentioned, those in Hallowell, Berwick, Frysburg, and Machias, which "have been incorporated by the legislature and endowed with handsome grants of the public lands."

*Rhode Island.*—The ignorance of "the bulk of the inhabitants" is remarked. An exception is made in favor of Providence and Newport. "At Newport there is a flourishing academy under the direction of a rector and tutors, who teach the learned languages, English grammar, geography, etc."<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>We find in this account of the schools of Boston an instance of the early use of the expression "grammar schools" in a sense somewhat like that which has now come into common use in this country. The seven schools of Boston are enumerated as "the Latin grammar school;" "the three English grammar schools," in which "the children of *both* sexes, from seven to fourteen years of age, are instructed in spelling, accentuating and reading the English language, both prose and verse, with propriety, also in English grammar and composition, together with the rudiments of geography;" and "the three other schools," in which "the same children are taught writing and arithmetic."

*Connecticut.*—"In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut." The provision for county grammar schools is noted.

Mention is made of the Hopkins grammar schools at Hartford and New Haven. "Academies have been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Wyndham, and Pomfret, some of which are flourishing."

*New York.*—"There are eight incorporated academies in different parts of the state; and we are happy to add, that the legislature have lately patronized collegiate and academic education, by granting a large gratuity to the college and academies in this state, which, in addition to their former funds, renders their endowments handsome and adequate to their expenditures."

*New Jersey.*—Of Nassau Hall (Princeton) it is said, "There is a grammar school of about twenty scholars connected with the college, under the superintendence of the president, and taught sometimes by a senior scholar, and sometimes by a graduate;" and of Queen's College (now Rutgers): "The grammar school, which is connected with the college, consists of between thirty and forty students, under the care of the trustees." The academies of the state are commended, and seven of them receive individual mention: viz., those of Freehold, Trenton, Hackensack, Orangedale, Elizabethtown, Burlington, and Newark. "Besides these, there are grammar schools at Springfield, Morristown, Bordentown, Amboy, etc."

*Pennsylvania.*—The academy at Philadelphia is mentioned. "The Episcopalians have an academy at Yorktown, in York county. There are also academies at Germantown, at Pittsburgh, at Washington, at Allenstown, and other places; these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals."

"The schools for young men and young women in Bethlehem and Nazareth, under the direction of the people called Moravians, are upon the best establishment of any schools in America."

*Maryland.*—Washington academy is mentioned; and the fact that "provision is made for free schools in most of the counties."

*Virginia.*—"There are several academies in Virginia; one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, and others in other places."

*North Carolina.*—"There is a very good academy at Warrenton,

<sup>1</sup> Dr. Tolman says, however, that "in 1800 Brown was the only institution where a higher education could be obtained." *History of Higher Education in Rhode Island*, p. 52. "Higher" education here includes that of secondary grade: See p. 11 of the same work.



another at Williamsborough in Granville, and three or four others in the state of considerable note."

*South Carolina.*—"Gentlemen of fortune, before the late war, sent their sons to Europe for education. During the late war and since, they have generally sent them to the middle and northern states. Those who have been at this expense in educating their sons have been but comparatively few in number, so that the literature of the state is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There are several respectable academies at Charleston; one at Beaufort on Port Royal Island, and several others in different parts of the state. . . . Part of the old barracks in Charleston have been handsomely fitted up, and converted into a college, and there are a number of students; but it does not yet merit a more dignified name than that of a respectable academy. . . . The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar school."

*Georgia.*—So far as this state is concerned, only plans and prospects are presented.

We have up to this point been concerned almost exclusively with the establishment of individual academies in the original states. Before considering the spread of secondary schools to the states admitted during the first half century under the constitution, it may be well to take a brief survey of the efforts made in the states along the Atlantic to build up general systems of secondary education. The first of the states to move in this matter seems to have been New York; and this state achieved the most permanent success, the organization which it adopted at the outset continuing with slight changes to flourish to the present time.

The University of the State of New York was established by legislative enactment in 1784; but did not assume its present form till a new organization was adopted in 1787. This university was not established as a local institution nor as a teaching body. It was intended to embody in one comprehensive organism all educational institutions having a corporate existence in the state. At first the Regents of the University and the trustees of Columbia College were one body; and it was proposed to make the college the head and mistress of the whole educational system of the state. The chief opposition to this arrangement came from the outlying counties, which were just then becoming desirous of having academies established within their borders. One of the chief representatives of the college party was Alexander



Hamilton. The foremost man in the academy party was Ezra L'Hommiedieu. The legislation of 1787, commonly represented as embodying the individual plan of Alexander Hamilton, seems rather to have been the result of a friendly compromise between the two opposing factions. It separated the Board of Regents from the boards of trustees of Columbia College and of any other colleges or academies which might be established within the University. It seems to have been the intention that the University should embrace the elementary schools of the state as well as institutions of secondary and higher education. But the higher schools were provided first; and when a state system of elementary schools was established, at the prompting of the University, it was made a separate organization. The University, then embraced, and now embraces practically the whole provision for secondary and higher education in the state.<sup>1</sup>

After assistance had been extended to the academies of the state for nearly thirty years, in a somewhat irregular fashion, through land

<sup>1</sup> In HILDRETH'S *History of the United States* (Vol. III, pp. 386, 387) appear the following statements with reference to this University: "Through the procurement of Hamilton, the New York Assembly presently passed an act erecting a board of twenty-one members, called 'Regents of the University of the State of New York,' . . . a board afterwards imitated in France, and which still continues to exist." Dr. Sherwood has shown that this legislation was not brought about by "the procurement of Hamilton" in any exclusive sense. The question whether Napoleon consciously imitated the State of New York when he came to establish the University of France is not an easy one. It would probably be safer to say that both Napoleon and the New York legislators were largely influenced and guided by the same French educational theorists, and notably by Diderot and Condorcet. Yet this may not tell the whole story. In the words of Dr. Sherwood, "The similarity which Napoleon's University of 1808 bore to the New York University of 1787, may not be a mere coincidence when it is seen that Condorcet and Fourcroy were thus early aware of what was being done in America for education. And Talleyrand's intimacy with Hamilton on his visit to America may not have been without effect upon the reconstruction of French education. If France may claim to have given to New York the ideal of a symmetrical state system of secular learning, New York may claim to have given to France the practical form of such a system, in great its all-inclusive university corporation."—*University of the State of New York*, p. 272.

The educational ideas of revolutionary France have exercised, as it would seem, a much larger influence on modern views of state education than is commonly supposed; and the educational interaction of France and America presents a highly interesting parallel to the political influence of each upon the other. We have here an important and fascinating subject for historical investigation. I am informed that Mr. James W. Adams, formerly Professor in the University of Nebraska, is engaged upon such an investigation. His studies will undoubtedly throw much light upon some of the most significant passages in our educational history.

grants and special legislative appropriations in money, an act was passed in 1813 establishing a permanent fund, known as the Literature Fund. The income from this fund is applied wholly to the support of secondary schools. This fund amounted in 1832 to nearly sixty thousand dollars. It has been supplemented from time to time by the income from lotteries (in 1801), by direct appropriations of state funds, and by various other means, and has contributed greatly to the building up of academic education. By means of Regents' examinations the secondary schools of the state have been kept up to prescribed standards of excellence; and in the annual "University Convocation," the representatives of such schools are brought into conference with one another and with representatives of the colleges and universities.

The establishment of the University of the State of New York was but one expression of an interest in the problems of the organization of education, which was then abroad in the land. Professor Herbert Adams has shown how largely American thought on these matters, in the latter part of the last century and the beginning of this, responded to the thought of the revolutionists in France. Dr. Sherwood, following him, has pointed out the close connection between the schemes of the encyclopedists and the concrete realization of similar plans in conservative New York. On both sides of the water the hope of a regeneration of the body politic rested on the hope of universal education under state control. The great constructive act of the State of New York was a most significant contribution to the movement of the time.

Other states, with equally good intentions, were less fortunate. Georgia followed hard after New York in the founding of the University of Georgia in 1785. The bill for this establishment provided that "All public schools instituted, or to be supported by funds or public moneys in this state, shall be considered as parts or members of the University." Each county was to have an academy, which was to be a part of the university. The crown of the whole system was to be a central college. The growth of this university has been mainly at the top. Franklin College, its vital center, has been in existence since 1801. About this are grouped several departments as in ordinary university organization. The original plan of making the university a comprehensive system of state education is recalled by the existence in different parts of the state of five "branch colleges," which are of the nature of technical schools.

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(To be continued)

## THE FOUR-YEAR LATIN PROGRAMMES OF THE COMMITTEE OF TWELVE

At the Holiday Conference of the Academic Principals' Association of the State of New York held at Syracuse, December 28-30, I made certain criticisms upon the recently issued four-year Latin programmes of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association. An abstract of my remarks appeared in the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for February. This, though entirely accurate so far as it goes, seems to me so little calculated adequately to explain my attitude on this subject, that I gladly embrace the opportunity, kindly extended to me by the editor of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*, of here publishing a full statement of what I said at the Syracuse Conference.<sup>1</sup>

My first criticism touches certain details of the proposed courses. The plan of the first year is as follows:

Latin lessons, accompanied from an early stage by the reading of simple selections such as those in *Gradatim*.

Easy readings, twenty to forty pages, of a consecutive text, such as *Viri Romæ*.

The reading of the Latin with an understanding of the sense independently of, and preliminary to, the formal rendering into idiomatic English.

Practice in reading aloud, with due attention to quantity and accent.

Memorizing of short and interesting passages.

Now I am free to confess that were I to teach elementary Latin I should hesitate to follow this programme for myself. To me it seems a mistake to insist on postponing till the second year the reading of a continuous prose author—Cæsar or Nepos. Some simple Latin, like the old fables, Roman history, or *Viri Romæ*, is undoubtedly desirable or, possibly, even necessary, in order successfully to bridge the chasm lying between the acquisi-

<sup>1</sup> I include also some points which lack of time prevented me from taking up. The conference generously extended the time originally allotted me, but even this did not afford adequate opportunity for a full discussion.

tion of the forms and elementary syntax on the one hand, and the reading of Cæsar or Nepos on the other. But my own experience for a number of years with elementary classes leads me to believe that with average pupils twenty to twenty-four weeks of properly directed effort ought to be sufficient to prepare them for the successful study of Cæsar or Nepos. Repeated discussion of this point, both orally and by correspondence, has convinced me, too, that this view is somewhat widely held.

In the programme for the second year the reading recommended is:

Any three or four books of Cæsar's *Gallic War*, or any two books, with an equivalent for the other book (or books) in selections from Nepos or other prose writers.

Ovid, 500 lines of the *Metamorphoses*, to follow the reading of Cæsar.

The suggestion of Ovid at this stage of the students' reading strikes me as unfortunate. I have always felt that there was the greatest weight in the views of those teachers of Greek who insist that it is a mistake for the boy who has just finished his three or four books of Xenophon to plunge into Homer. This transition from prose to poetry, occurring before the student can fairly be expected to have obtained the requisite mastery of the prose idiom, is likely to do much to unsettle his knowledge of Attic prose, and at all events it must fail in giving greater breadth and security of knowledge of prose usage, the one positive attainment that ought to be presupposed as existing in the candidate for college. Just so as regards Latin. To undertake the reading of Latin poetry with its widely different vocabulary, word-equivalence and especially syntax, after four books, or possibly only three books, of Cæsar seems to me likely to unsettle the pupil's knowledge of standard prose usage, at the very time when he ought to be industriously completing and extending it.

The plan for the third year is:

Sallust, *Catiline*.

Cicero, *Orations against Catiline*.

Virgil, *Æneid*, Books I, II.

For the fourth year:

Virgil, *Aeneid*, Books III-VI.

Two Orations of Cicero.

Ovid, 1000 lines (where practicable.)

Two other plans for the work of the third and fourth years are suggested as alternatives, but the courses just given receive the preference in the complete four-year programme of the committee. The plan is that recommended by the New England Commission of Colleges several years ago, and cannot be characterized as a happy one. It is difficult to believe that it represents in any large degree views reached by the mature experience of men engaged in secondary Latin instruction. To interrupt the continuity of the reading of Cicero by reading Virgil, and to interrupt the continuity of the reading of Virgil by the long vacation, seems a great loss in economy without any discernible compensating advantage.

Besides these specific criticisms of various details of the courses proposed, I cannot suppress the conviction that the course as a whole is too heavy. Four years is a short time, the secondary curriculum is already full, the pupils' time and strength are limited, and even at present the preparation in Latin is wretchedly inadequate. Students who come to college can seldom read five lines of Latin with anything like precision of quantity and accent; they can seldom write simple detached sentences involving the more difficult mood and tense usages, to say nothing of a mastery of word-order or the acquisition of a sense for style.<sup>1</sup> All of which prompts the question, whether we do not already attempt to do too much, and whether it would not be better to omit Sallust and Ovid in the average four-year course, and devote the time thus saved to securing greater accuracy in some of the particulars above enumerated where its absence is now most keenly felt. For one I am ready with an affirmative answer to this inquiry.

<sup>1</sup> I am aware that in published entrance tests it is customary to prescribe an ability to write simple Latin prose, but I am credibly informed that the facility is seldom, if ever, attained.

My second criticism touches a matter of principle. It is this: I cannot concede the wisdom of urging upon the secondary schools any such detailed uniformity of curriculum and sequence of authors as that recommended in the report of the Committee of Twelve. I cannot concede the wisdom of doing this, because I feel sure that no two teachers teach alike. They may have like ends in view, but they reach these by methods as various as human personality itself. The teacher ought to be free; he ought to have no fetters put upon him as regards the methods he employs to reach his ends. If he is fit to teach, he will wisely adapt his ways of teaching to the object in view; if he is unfit, he will scarcely profit by undertaking to practice conformity to a scheme devised by others. I have already indicated above how radically different my own methods would be from those recommended by the committee in the conduct of the first-year work. By the middle of the year I should expect to begin *Cæsar* or *Nepos*, and to make considerable headway with the author chosen by the end of the first year. But in this I trust I may not be misunderstood; I am not urging my own plan as a necessary one, or an ideal one for all teachers. All I claim is the right of every man to do his own work in his own way. For those who would follow the course mapped out by the committee, either for the first year or for other years, I should claim with just as much earnestness the fullest liberty of choice.

So far, then, as the recommendations of the Committee of Twelve tend to limit the teacher's freedom in arranging and conducting his own work, I cannot refrain from regarding them as unwise. The efficiency of the teacher must depend largely upon his personal sense of responsibility. The report of the committee seems to me to have a dangerous centralizing tendency, the effect of which would be to shift the responsibility from the individual teacher to the Philological Association—a most unfortunate metathesis. In short, my own conviction is clear not only that the recommendations of the committee are uncalled for, but that their adoption would be most inimical to the cause of Latin teaching and to education in general.

Nor is it clear that the Committee of Twelve were ever asked or expected to prepare model courses. The mandate under which they are acting was a telegram received from the Joint Committee of Ten of the National Educational Association at the time of the Buffalo meeting in 1896, and reads as follows:

The joint committee on college entrance requirements of the departments of higher and secondary education of the National Educational Association formally invite the American Philological Association to prepare at its convenience a report on the proper course of secondary instruction in Latin and Greek for the information and use of the joint committee.<sup>1</sup>

I cannot in this communication see any request for model courses. Nor in the very full statement of the plan of work of the Joint Committee for 1896-7 given at the Buffalo meeting by Professor Hinsdale,<sup>2</sup> is there any suggestion that the committee wished model courses. As a committee engaged in the task of adjusting secondary curricula to college entrance requirements, I was at a loss to see of what use detailed model courses could possibly be to them in their deliberations. All of these considerations led me to believe that it had not been their desire to have model courses submitted to them by the American Philological Association, and this conviction was decidedly confirmed when I received the most positive personal assurance to the same effect from one of the members of the Joint Committee who had been most active in preparing the plan of work of the committee as presented in outline by Professor Hinsdale and found in the proceedings of the National Educational Association for 1896, p. 558.

Believing, therefore, as I did that the courses submitted by the Committee of Twelve were unwise, believing further that the recommendation of any uniform courses was a mistake, I felt it only just to the Joint Committee to point out that their obvious intention had been misunderstood.

One word by way of closing. In my remarks before the associated principals at Syracuse I stated that the action of the

<sup>1</sup> Proceedings American Philological Association, 1896, p. lv.

<sup>2</sup> Proceedings N. E. A., 1896, p. 558 f.

Joint Committee originated with the committee itself. The editor of the SCHOOL REVIEW in a footnote printed in the February number points out that this is an error. I cheerfully accept the correction and regret the mistake. In extenuation, however, I feel I ought to urge that the printed minutes of the proceedings of the National Educational Association are alone responsible for my blunder. Those minutes<sup>1</sup> state that Professor Hinsdale presented to the Secondary Department a report of the plan of work of the Joint Committee for 1896-7. The plan is given at length. No mention of discussion follows and the next minute reads: "The Secretary gave an oral *report of the committee* for the year. The *report of the committee* was accepted and adopted." In perfect good faith I supposed this to mean that the "report of the committee for the year" was adopted. Such, I am confident, would be the interpretation of any one who was not previously familiar with the facts. The editor of the SCHOOL REVIEW assures me, however, that the reference is to the plan of work submitted by Professor Hinsdale, and I am satisfied that this must be correct.

For the work of the joint committee I have only the heartiest sympathy and the profoundest respect. The task it has undertaken is of the highest importance, and the zeal, intelligence, and self-sacrifice with which the members of the committee are dealing with the problem command unqualified admiration. My earnest hope is that they may receive unstinted coöperation along the lines of their own endeavor.

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<sup>1</sup> Proceedings N. E. A., 1896, p. 558 f.



## THE GROWTH OF MIND AS A REAL AND THE INFLUENCE OF THE FORMAL ON THE REAL

### III<sup>1</sup>

#### CHAPTER V

##### PRE-CONDITIONS OF THE SUCCESS OF THE MIND PROCESS GENERALLY

###### I. MEMORY

Firstly; memory and imagination do not enter into the dynamic process of mind *as such*, but are pre-conditions of its growth.

Secondly; memory and imagination are not separate faculties of mind but functions in all mind functionings.

###### (a) *On the attitudinal plane*

*Retention.*—When conscious mind is aware of any presentation, simple or an aggregated whole (complex totality), it retains (or rather tends to retain) the experience; that is to say, the presentation remains somehow in the mind after it has disappeared from present consciousness. This is Retention—basis of all memory.

*Recognition and reminiscence.*—Next, when a past experience, *i. e.*, an experience which has passed away from present consciousness but has been retained in the conscious subject, *e. g.*, *a*, a particular stone, recurs in fact (or in representative imagination, see sequel), the conscious subject 'senses' it as *a*, and further, as the *same a* which it had previously experienced. (The act of consciousness is numerically different, but the object stone is identical as a consciousness with the stone of prior experience.)

<sup>1</sup> The preceding portions of this article appeared in the January and February numbers of this journal.

Note that we are as yet only in the sphere of sensational or attitudinal (animal) consciousness, and there is as yet no judgment, inasmuch as judgment involves affirmation, and this is possible only when reason emerges. And yet, in a sense, there is a sensational judgment, just as there were several sensational judgments in the primary experiences which constituted *a* the stone for sense. But all these judgments are implicit and written *on* the subject, so to speak, not explicit and affirmed *by* the subject. So regarded, all nature and all its processes are an infinite series of judgments which are ever ready to write themselves on recipient attitudinal consciousness, and there wait for the activity of pure formal reason to be affirmed, and further dialectically dealt with.

This re-sensing of *a*, *i. e.*, the sensing of *a* with the accompanying inward flash of the present *a* as being the same as the *a* previously sensed, is *Remembering* or *Reminiscence*; it is a consciousness of an experience as having been previously experienced, *e. g.*, a dog sees today a man he saw yesterday and recognizes<sup>1</sup> him or remembers him.

*Memory*, consequently, is a general term embracing retention and recognition.

But the conscious subject is, so far as we have gone, a merely passivo-active thing or entity<sup>2</sup> responding to the presentations proceeding from external nature (including organic sensation); or, to put it otherwise, there is a dynamical reproduction in consciousness of past presentations.

*Imagination*.—Further, when the re-presentation of *a* occurs in consciousness as the result of dynamic activities, cerebral or mental, without the presence of *a* in reality, the re-presentation is a presentation of the likeness or "image" of *a*. (This image is sometimes called "subject-object," to distinguish it from object actually and truly there by itself.)

Thus we find that in the conscious subject there is a tendency to reproduce in and for itself "images" of experiences past, and not now actually existent in its presence. This we call

<sup>1</sup> I am sorry to have to use this word "recognition" used by Locke and, I suppose, inherited by him, because of its association with cognition of which there is as yet none; but its connotations are such as to make its application clear. The more exact word would be re-sensing.

<sup>2</sup> I am intellectually incapable of following the gentlemen who can dispense with an entity.

representative or reproductive imagination. The whole process, however, is as yet dynamical and within the sphere of life-activity and life-process (including reflex-action).

The re-presentation *a* is "recognized" as identical with the previous presentation of *a*. It is remembered.

NOTES.—The "image" so-called is not necessarily visual. The perfect memory of *a* contains all that *a* was in the primary sensation of it. (It is not association that facilitates the retention and restitution of a presentation, but singleness as associated with the total then content of mind.)

Memory, then, may be defined (generally) as the identifying of a present consciousness with a consciousness formerly experienced. The full and easy recognition of *a* depends not merely on the unitary re-presentation of *a*, but also on the re-presentation of all that primarily accompanied *a*. Presentations and re-presentations (images of presentations) are felt to be similar to prior presentations and representations. This we see in animals. They have, however, to wait for the action of their environment on them, or the dynamical movements in their cerebrum or in sensational mind generally, for recurrences of experiences. This passivo-active memory, which we share with animals, we call it reminiscence.

(b) *On the Plane of Reason*

Will-energy, with form of end implicit, now enters and isolates and affirms by a judgment the present recept. The recept is now, in fact, thereby raised to a percept.

Further, the same will-reason can now seek purposely to recover and re-instate past experiences with a view to knowledge. This activo-active memory is to be called *Recollection*, and is, of course, peculiar to the man, or rational, mind alone.

It is manifest that in reminiscence we are wholly in the hands of the dynamic processes of mind and cerebrum, while in recollection we, of our own motion, follow the track of past associations in order to recover the past. An animal cannot "recollect."

*Educational reference of the above*

*Principle of method.*—Cultivate memory in accordance with the conditions of remembering. This is obvious enough; for without memory we should have to begin experience every day *de novo*, and unless we observe the conditions we fail.

NOTE.—In cultivating memory we are at the same time cultivating imagination because we are requiring the child to call up re-presentations of what is not present.

## CHAPTER VI

## CONDITIONS OF REMEMBERING

So far as we have gone we can see, by the analysis of assimilation and memory, the conditions of remembering. These are:—

*a* On the Sensational plane:

- (a) The presentation of one new thing at a time—or the singleness of the impression; but this so as to be assimilated with the existing content of mind, and constitute a group or a series.
- (b) Vividness and lucidness of the presentation and impression.
- (c) Repetition of impressions.
- (d) Duration of impressions (within the limits of fatigue).<sup>1</sup>
- (e) Association of new impressions with time or locality.
- (f) Artificial associations.

*b* On the Reason plane:

- (a) The emphasizing and accentuation of the thing to be remembered by raising recipience to percipience and thereby affirming the thing. The intensity of the presentation is thereby deepened.

NOTE.—The mental affirmation is further emphasized by being expressed in words; and an association of the thing to be remembered with certain

<sup>1</sup> If after a certain duration the presentation is not clear and assimilated, interest flags. With the young, therefore, we rely mainly on repetition.

words is thereby established. A boy should always be required to speak out and write out what you wish him to remember.

We leave the young to draw their experiences from every casual source; but, when we give them instruction, we intend that they shall remember certain cohering groups of fact and reasoning. Accordingly we tell them, or (what is better) help them to find out, new facts or reasonings, and demand the reproduction of these from time to time. These groups of things taught in school should be representative of experience generally. But whether the groups of facts be geographical, linguistic, literary, scientific, moral, or religious, we have to insist on the pupil remembering them, keeping always in view the conditions of remembering. The practical problem is this: How shall I secure that my pupils will remember what I am about to teach them? The answer—I must observe the conditions of remembering; but, above all, (1) I must adapt myself to the natural process of mind in building itself up; in other words, I must present a single thing, and this of such a kind and presented in such a way as will secure its fitting into the already existing content of mind. (2) I must associate isolated words or things in a series; *e. g.*, in teaching the vocables of a foreign tongue, while these must be mainly learned by reading, we are justified in giving lists of words which have real connections, such as the parts of the body or the furniture in a room, etc. We here have the association of place as well as the real association. It is hard and stupid work to learn lists of unconnected vocables, and even when learned they are quickly forgotten, (3) I must repeat and repeat, and the younger the child is the more of repetition is needed.

Some have written against the memory-work of schools. What they assailed, however, was not memory (this would be absurd) but rote-memory. That is to say, the memory of words and things without understanding them. The principles and rules of method yielded by the process of mind would not result in knowledge were there no memory. It is not worth while to teach anything unless it is to be remembered. Memory, con-

sequently is vital in education, and it is desirable that many things should be learned "by heart."

Can we by exercise strengthen memory? That is to say, can we increase the power of remembering things generally? I do not think we can increase the abstract power of remembering at the attitudinal stage of mind; but by exercising memory in this or that direction we can, as will-reason asserts itself, give a *habit of purposed remembering*. The boy has a new thing properly presented to him and *wills* to remember it. With young children we manifestly cannot rely on this, but only on the conditions of remembering as given above. For example, in a certain definite line of mental acquisition (geographical, historical, linguistic etc.), or in connection with a certain group of facts, the connecting of a new fact with what is already known becomes always more easy and rapid from day to day. But this is not to strengthen memory but rather to facilitate memorizing. It may be said, on the other hand, that a boy of seven takes much longer to learn by heart his first ballad than his second; but this is because the learning of his first ballad has given him easy command of a stock of words and phrases which recur in his second exercise of committing to memory. The power of memorizing the second ballad is thus facilitated but not strengthened (strictly speaking). So with a youth who is studying chemistry. A new chemical fact is at once put in its place and, as coherently associated with the already existing mental stock and so assimilated, it is *easily* remembered. But it does not follow that the pupil is thereby fitted to remember more easily a new fact in biology—a subject which he has not been studying. When we pass into the rational stage of mind, however, we can strengthen the memory, I think, because we are then exercising the pupil in the *purpose* of remembering.

To cause boys to learn certain things by heart has been objected to; but this is, so far, an exercise of reason, because it is an exercise of will with a purpose. Indirectly it is of moral effect inasmuch as it forms the habit of directing the will to ends, an exercise which, as opposed to the casual and drifting life of

the "natural man," is moral in its essential character. But to ask them to learn by heart what they do not understand is, while a discipline, yet a wholly artificial discipline and can have no good result. When memory is weak, let a boy begin by committing a little at a time.

I must cultivate memory then in the young, always observing the conditions of memory: (*a*) In order that knowledge may be acquired and retained: (*b*) in order that memory of new facts in certain selected departments of knowledge may be facilitated; (*c*) in order that the purpose of willing to remember may be exercised and so strengthened.

To write summaries of what is learned is useful: but these summaries and epitomes must be the work of the pupil himself. If done for him, they lose their value, nay, are positively hurtful. And this because the teacher relies on passive receptivity more than on active reproduction. Evoke the will.

Spite of all that can be done, the young will in the course of a few years forget more than they remember. And yet, if they have been well taught, they may be said to remember everything. A boy may have forgotten, for example, all the geometry and algebra which he once knew; but definitions and reasonings, geometrical and algebraic, have so entered into his mind as a possession that he applies himself to a question involving mathematics with a certain facility more or less, and is thus actually using what he has forgotten. This is true of all other subjects of instruction. Disciplinary subjects especially, such as language and mathematics, leave when forgotten a power behind them; and they also leave a certain resultant of knowledge which can not be recalled in detail, but which yet facilitates any new knowledge which the youth may have to acquire, or any new judgment in the affairs of life which he is called upon to form.

We must not, then, be discouraged because a boy, and still more a man, forgets much of what he learned at school. For just as the discipline given by, let us say, Latin, and mathematics, or by instruction in the method of science, leaves an energy and power behind when the Latin, etc., are quite forgotten, so the

memory of things moral, religious, geographical, historical, etc., leaves a deposit of *tendency* to appreciate knowledge on those lines when the facts and doctrines are no longer producible in their didactic form. The large and complex background of the unconscious, let us remember, is constantly determining both our intellectual and moral activity from day to day. We think the right and do the good without waiting to make clear our motives, and, in the majority of cases, without the capacity to do so under any pressure that might be put on us. Thus it is that an instructor who teaches according to the principles of method (in other words, enlightened common sense) has the consolation of knowing that his labor is never lost, cannot be lost. The tendency and facility of mind which instruction gives and the formal power which discipline gives always remain, both in the intellectual and moral sphere, and the seeds of knowledge and of aptitude which the instructor has sown always produce fruit.

If what we have said be true, it is as much the direction of memory as the mere cultivating of it that is our duty; or rather, let us say, the cultivation of memory in certain specific directions is imposed on the teacher. The memories of things and acts abound in every one and go to form both the intellectual and moral character (habit of mind) without our intervention. But all training at the hands of another is *intervention* with a view to a certain end, viz., such knowledge and such habit of mind, intellectual and moral, as promote the ethical end of all education. As an educator, accordingly, I intervene in the natural process that is going on, for the purpose of concentrating memory on experiences which ought to be remembered. For example, by clear presentation and repetition, I give truth to the vague and casual experiences of the child, and, by thus raising recipient intuitions to clear percepts and concepts, I insure an exact basis for knowledge. I insure by repetition the memory of number and form and color, of printed and written words; and so on through all the subjects of school instruction. I pre-occupy the memory, so to speak, with the essential. Still more important, owing to the fact that the child is more than anything



else a creature of moral feeling and emotion, is the pre-occupation of the mind with good feelings and emotions, so as to give a certain set or habit to the motive-forces of conduct. It is the ethical material, or "moral real," of the mind that primarily furnishes motives, just as it is the exercise of the formal energy that gives discipline and will to act. And the process of discipline itself like the acquisition of knowledge, rests on memory; for it is simply the repetition of difficult acts till an intellectual and moral aptitude of habit has been formed. So with religious feeling. I give only so much of the real as the child can take; but I give the best, in order that the religious conceptions and future motives and ideals of the boy and man may be what they ought to be.

I have rested what may be called the method of memory, which includes its conditions, on the dynamic process whereby the mind builds itself up as a real, and on the fact of the will-energy out of which comes a purpose of remembering. The following practical rule will be now obvious:

*Rule.*—In teaching, repeat and re-repeat, revise and re-revise; and be always falling back on the elementary facts and principles of the subject of instruction, so as to maintain a coherent series of associations, real and logical.<sup>1</sup>

## II. IMAGINATION.

We found, in following the track of conscious mind in building itself up by help of the materials of recollection, that the receipts of objects tended to reproduce themselves for mind when the object itself has been removed. This is called imaging

<sup>1</sup>Memory, in the sense of retention, originally involves a certain affection of the nerve tissue when I first become aware of *a*, and also the said awareness or consciousness. Thus retention, like sensation and perception, must be a dual act, or, as I prefer to put it, one act in two moments (mind and matter). If either of these fail the sensation will not be retained, and cannot, consequently, be reproduced. In the same way either of the moments may set in motion the other. An excitement of the nerve disposition, which was the condition of my original consciousness of *a*, will set up the consciousness *de novo*. So an excitement in the conscious mind-moment (caused by association or otherwise) may set up the nerve disposition and the reconsciousness be thereby affected. It is quite possible to conceive that the one moment may be active and the other dead or asleep or half awake only, and then the consciousness would

or imagination; and as the primary experience (sensitive, percept, thought) arises out of an actual presentation to consciousness of a past experience, we call this imaging Re-presentative or Re-productive imagination. Without this connate tendency of mind and brain we could make little progress in knowledge, for we should be entirely dependent on the actual presence of everything we thought about. There would be no memory save in the sense of recognition of actual presentations as being old presentations. Imagination, then, is simply the reproduction in sensation of the impression made by an object which is now no longer present—the re-presentation of a presentation. We thus repeat and revise our sensations and all mental experiences, and are not left entirely at the mercy of objects in actual presentation at the moment.

(a) *On the plane of intuition* we have merely Representative imagination.

(b) *On the plane of reason* we have Productive or Constructive imagination.

Here the will, of set purpose, seizes representates or images that dynamically arise, re-perceives them, searches for images with a productive purpose and constructs imaginary wholes. What the mind retains is thus molded into fresh relations and ideal products, and this activity is in a high degree educative. In a large proportion of the lessons we give to children we have to speak of things which have never been directly experienced, and are consequently calling into activity the constructive imagination. It is manifestly absurd to do this unless we can rely on the previous experiences of the child for the construction in imagination of the new thing.

The principle of education which this yields is:

not be effected at all. The original experience would be unrecallable, not merely because both moments were inoperative, but only because one of them was dead. The experience is simply lost and goes for nothing.

We know, as a matter of fact, that the nerve disposition, like any other physical impression, may be wiped out. It is within the region of hypothesis at least that the mind disposition, or affection, or what not, may remain. But of the mind moment, as such, we know nothing save by its manifestations.

*Cultivate the imagination.*

And this we do :

(a) By allowing free play to the representative imagination (a child educates himself even by day-dreaming).

(b) By calling for the reproduction of past experiences, whether of things seen, or of narratives, events, or reasonings.

(c) By evoking the productive imagination, through the furnishing of the child with productive work, as in fairy tales, narratives of events, simple poetry, and so forth. All this is necessary to the rich growth of mind as a substantive reality ; and this quite apart from the æsthetic and ethical importance of such instruction : ethical as well as æsthetic, I say, because all such activity involves the construction of ideals.

NOTE.—I have spoken of certain functions of conscious mind which are the pre-conditions of the possibility of building up mind as a real. These pre-conditions cannot correctly be called universals, because this term has been reserved for the ever-present characteristics of actual experience when the conscious mind begins to be conscious of that which is not itself. As regards this experience the most universal of universals are space and time. I can be conscious, as a creature of mere sense, of nothing which is not in time, and of nothing external which is not in space. But this does not mean (as is too commonly assumed) that the real experience is plunged in abstract entities which are called space and time. It only means that the experience of this or that thing or the totality of things has always, and necessarily, time and space as two of its elements.

To speak of abstract time and space as if they were realities *per se*, whereas they are merely universal attributes of presented realities, is misleading. Time and space are themselves part of the phenomena or object. They are a mere reflection in and by the sentient consciousness of the facts of existence, the actual extension of outness, and the actual sequence of events.

It is the necessariness of these perceptions which has led to their being elevated to the position of abstract wholes *in* which all things exist. But necessariness simply means that things are so ; and to think things otherwise than as they exist and are given is not possible for a consciousness which is itself part of the system of things. Sense, it is said, may give universality, but it cannot give necessity ; therefore, space and time are innate or *a priori* forms of sentence which receive and mould all those stimuli which set up the consciousness of an object. The result of this way of looking at experience

is a dualism which leaves a gap between conscious subject and object, and severs man from reality by establishing a system of relativity which wipes out the absolute and objective truth of the whole world of consciousness, and not merely of the external world. Objective reality or truth becomes an  $x$  or unknown quantity, and even for this  $x$  itself there is no guarantee. The objective reality which we feel (sense and perceive) is, in truth, the true objective reality as it exists, or rather, it exists as we see it. It is not the relative but the absolute truth of things. I do not urge as an argument that to deny this is to affirm a cosmic fiasco, because the whole cosmic system might, after all, be a fiasco; but I would point out that, if we can only shake ourselves free of a crude dualism, we shall at once see that the conscious mind is as much involved in the system of which it forms a part as a tree or a stone, and that it differs from these only in being conscious, and so reflecting and absorbing into itself truly that which truly exists. To think the existence of any particular thing (*e. g.*, a tree or a stone) otherwise than as it is given is manifestly impossible without destroying its identity; so also, to think that which is a universal character of all existences otherwise than as it is given is to think a different cosmic system to that in which we are involved, and this also is impossible until we have got outside the system; which again is an impossibility. Let us be content with our system and proceed to the interpretation of it. And the interpretation is an interpretation of the data in consciousness which is also at the same time the interpretation of non-subject; and further, it is the interpretation of the activity of self-consciousness or dialectic which also is the dialectic of the datum or object becoming alive in us as individual subjects, and so making the subject alive to the dialectic permeating the universal object or universal reality, which the subject *must* conceive dialectically; for there is no other way.

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## A NEW DEPARTURE IN THE STUDY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

AS THE means of easy and rapid intercommunication between nations multiply, it becomes more and more important every year that greater attention should be given to the study of foreign modern languages in our public schools. At the present time the most important languages for this purpose are very evidently French and German. For many years to come the study of Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and all other foreign modern languages, must occupy a much less important place than these.

How these foreign languages can best be taught in our schools and colleges is a question which has received much attention at the hands of experienced educators of this generation. Some have contended that as little or no opportunity could be offered in this country for practical communication in these languages, and as the time of students in our schools is so precious, and their programmes are already overcrowded, the only thing to be attempted should be a tolerable familiarity with the printed pages of foreign books or journals, without any extended effort to *write* or *speak* the language in question. After many years of experience as a teacher this was a conclusion practically reached by the writer a number of years since, and much of his teaching in years past has doubtless been very materially influenced by this conclusion. Within the past two years, however, a modified method of instruction in this department seems likely to do much to place the writing, and even the speaking, of these foreign languages within comparatively easy reach of a vast number of our American students. It is now about two years since M. Micille, now a professor in the Lycée of Tarbes, Hautes Pyrénées, while in England, devised a method of international correspondence between students and teachers

in France and England, which has been warmly received by educators and students in those two countries, and several thousands on either side of the channel are now entered upon the lists, and mutually rendering each other great aid in becoming familiar with their respective languages.

The process is very simple and eminently practical, being capable of application to students of all ages and grades after they have learned to read and write their own language, and have made some progress in acquiring the foreign tongue. Professor Mieille thinks the system applicable as soon as the student learns to write very simple sentences in the foreign language. On this point I am not prepared to speak with great confidence, but I should incline to give students one or two years' work on the foreign language in an ordinary school course before beginning the correspondence. I confess that then in each added month of my experience thus far I have been inclined to lower steadily the grade of work demanded for a beginning. Then, too, it depends a good deal upon the aptitude of the student, some being quite capable of doing satisfactory work at a much earlier stage of the course than others. But this is a minor detail for each teacher to learn by his own experience.

The method of procedure may be simply described thus: Let those schools, colleges, or individuals, who wish to begin this system, send the names, ages, and addresses of those who wish to correspond to the following well-known firms in Paris: For young students send to MM. Armand Colin et Cie, No. 5 rue de Mezières, Paris; and for older students, teachers, or other mature persons, address: Librairie Hachette, 79 Boulevard Saint Germain, Paris.

These firms will give prompt attention to such requests, assigning to each person whose name, etc., is sent, a suitable correspondent; and these French correspondents write the first letter, in French, to their American friends, who, on receiving the letters, promptly reply in English. After these first letters the next letter from France is written in English, and the second letter from America is written in French. The correspondence

thus commenced is continued, as begun, alternating the two languages. Also all letters *received* which are written in the language of the *receiver* are returned, carefully corrected, to the writer. Thus, if letters are filed, at the end of the year each student has model letters in the foreign tongue, and his own corrected letters for careful study.

I have said that this system is working well between France and England. It is also working, to some extent, between France and Germany, France and Italy; and on this side the water several schools and colleges in Canada are thus in communication with France; and, so far as known, but two institutions in the United States, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., and Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa. In this college about thirty of the students, mostly those in their third and fourth year, a few in their second year, are enrolled as correspondents. The letters, as received, are read aloud in class, sometimes translated, sometimes in French, and are made most interesting topics for the lesson of the day. No one who has not tried the system can fully realize the new life and spirit that are thus infused into a class. Instead of being a dry and dull grammatical lesson, with little direct practical bearing upon daily life, the language is seen at once to have a life and a meaning before little expected by the student. The letters are so distributed that one or sometimes two may be read at the opening of a class, and the eager attention which they receive ensures a deep impression upon the mind of every student. Even the letters in English are read aloud, and the errors committed are not only a source of amusement, but aid much in fixing upon the minds of the students the idioms of the foreign tongue. The acquaintances thus made, too, in foreign lands will be a source of great pleasure and satisfaction when these young people come to cross the sea, as many of them will be sure to do in these days of short ocean voyages and endless traveling facilities unknown to a past generation.

Another incidental, but very important result which such correspondence would secure, on becoming general, would be a

far better understanding between different nations and a consequent drawing together in spirit, and thus would be promoted, in a great degree, the early approach of the time when wars and fighting should be no more and peace would prevail throughout all the world and among all the inhabitants thereof.

EDWARD H. MAGILL

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## LATIN COMPOSITION IN THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

IN his attitude towards any subject which forms a part of his pupils' preparation for college, the teacher has to be guided largely by the character of the examination papers set by the colleges, and will, I think, agree that in the admission examinations in Latin Composition a salutary change has come about in recent years. The detached sentences of blessed memory, with their often abysmal silliness of idea, combined with an overdose of constructional tidbits, have very generally given place to a short connected passage of respectable English. What Latin Composition has thus lost as a chronicle of the pupil's knowledge of grammatical eccentricities, it has more than recovered by its greater effectiveness as a means of penetration into the general spirit of the language. This, I take it, is the most valuable function of the study of Latin Composition nowadays, and I regret for its crippling influence upon this function the announcement made by most of the colleges that the passages set for translation into Latin will be based upon certain small portions of some particular Latin author or authors. This limitation has something unpleasantly cut and dried about it, and tends to make more difficult one of the most serious difficulties the teacher meets in trying to inspire his pupils with a live interest in Latin study, namely, their inclination to utter woodenness and mechanicalness and their feeling that, as a French writer has it, Latin is an unpractical, inhuman sort of speech any way — the Romans tried it for several centuries and then gave it up and took to Italian. As long as the classical scholar aimed at the ability to write Latin as a literary accomplishment, the more perfectly he could imitate Cicero, or Cæsar, the more completely he attained his object; but today it is Latin as such, the vitalizing spirit of Latin, that we want to make ours

through our study and practice, not the particular embodiment of that spirit left us by Nepos, or Sallust, or Cæsar, or even Cicero, and although, of course, we cannot imbibe that spirit from the air, and need often to go to these authors as our best guide, we should be on our guard against exalting that guide into a fetich and emphasizing the mechanical element in our work.

To express a given thought in Latin (as in any other language), one has to know three things, the forms of the words needed, their individual meanings, and the relations they have for the time being to each other, or, as these relations are indicated partly by the grammatical construction of the words and partly by their grouping, we may say that one must know four things about the words to be used, their forms, meanings, syntax, and arrangement. And one must not only know these four things, but must know them better in order to write Latin than to read it. You can translate from a foreign language into your own, doing your thinking all the while in the vernacular, but to write or speak a foreign language you must, to a certain extent, think in it. The words must be alive to you and must convey their idea to you directly. There is no royal road to the attainment of this end. It requires minute study of words as representatives of ideas, and ideas as represented by words—a study that needs the same sort of close observation which scientists give to their study of flowers or stones. This seems, perhaps, a painful and slow process, and it does demand a good deal of the teacher, but being constantly reminded that the animal we call “a dog,” for instance, is not, in the eternal nature of things, a “dog” any more than a *canis*, and that when he heard or saw the word *manus*, a Roman boy did not have to translate it into “hand” in order to understand what it meant, the average pupil comes presently to see a glimmering of light, that he is interested in making brighter and brighter until it illumines the whole pathway of his study.

Simple nouns, as the names of objects known to the pupil, are the best words to begin with, and then common verbs and adjectives, such as denote everyday actions and simple quali-

ties, can follow. Synonyms are especially useful, and words which, like *gladius* as compared with "sword," do not cover exactly the same ground, but these mark a second step in the process. If the process seems to any one wasteful of time and strength, let him consider the relative economy of looking up, for instance, the English word "last" in a vocabulary and taking at random or trying to choose one of the words *ultimus*, *postremus*, *supremus*, *extremus*, *proximus*, *novissimus*, and of studying these words with reference to the simple ideas which they primarily represent, noting how each of them is equivalent to some phase of the idea "last." The kind of knowledge that comes in this way and the insight thus gained into the nature of language as such are almost indispensable to one who is to use his own language with any cultivated facility, and they are doubly necessary to our beginners in Latin, partly because of the peculiar differences between Latin and English, and more especially because so large a proportion of the children in our classes come to their work unfurnished with any real linguistic tradition. I do not mean to say it invidiously, but it is a melancholy fact that the greater number of American children do not hear their own language treated at home in a way that tends to lighten their language study.

I used the word "last" as an example, because most of its Latin equivalents have prepositions as their foundation element, and prepositions repay particularly well the kind of study I am suggesting. They represent originally a very simple class of ideas, that of the relation in space between two objects, and these ideas of relation or direction in space offer no more difficulty to the beginner in themselves than do the ideas represented by simple nouns or verbs. What makes the mastery of prepositions in a foreign tongue harder than the mastery of nouns and verbs or adjectives, is that while these latter represent each an idea which pictures itself, to the untrained mind at least, as a single thing or entity, the preposition involves a relation between two things, and that relation varies with the point of view of the mind contemplating it. The act of seeing, for

example, is the same thing, for practical purposes, whoever does the seeing, but one of two objects may be behind or above the other as seen from where I stand, while it is before or below the other from where you stand, and, as soon as we get away from physical relations into the metaphorical relations expressed by various prepositions, the difference in point of view produces all sorts of complications. On the other hand, the very simplicity of the notions "at," "from," "by," etc., makes it hard for the beginner to free himself from the natural first thought that what is "from" to him was "from" to the Roman, and that if "to return with his brother" is *cum fratre redire*, "to kill with a sword" is *cum gladio occidere*. It has always been canonical, when the pupil made this particular blunder, for the teacher to discourse upon the difference between means and accomplishment. I would have things shifted a little, so that what was behind shall be before, and the pupil shall be taught from the beginning to go back of the word and study the thing it stands for, instead of treating the word as itself the thing, as he has a tendency to do. The English word is, to be sure, the only tool he has to work with at first, but so long as that remains an indispensable handle without which he cannot grasp the Latin word, he is struggling to work from the outside, when the essential problem is to discover the best way of getting inside and working from within out. To put it differently, imagine a right angled triangle with an English word at the right angle, an idea at the end of the base, and a Latin word at the end of the perpendicular. It is not difficult to see the advantage possessed by one who can travel freely back and forth along the hypotenuse over one who has to move by way of the other two sides.

Case-forms, tense-forms and the rest should be approached in the same spirit as the words themselves. These variations of declension and conjugation come to mean something and fasten themselves in the memory, when they are seen to be representatives of different phases of an idea, just as separate words are representatives of separate ideas. Case-forms have a difficulty of their own because, being virtually non-existent in English,

they seem unreal to the English speaking pupil when he meets them in Latin. In view of this, the plan sometimes pursued of taking up the verb before the noun has much in its favor, though there are serious disadvantages connected with it in other ways. For instance, the subjunctive mood, which Æneas probably brought up from his visit to the lower regions, is a stumbling block in the way of any complete treatment of the Latin verb early in one's career, and confusion is caused by any arrangement which differs radically from the traditional sequence of subjects in our grammars. But such matters are details which each teacher can best order so as to suit the conditions of his own work, remembering the desirability of putting as much vitality as may be into inflexional differences.

Syntax, the third of the categories into which I divided the knowledge of the words to be used necessary to write Latin well, does not require much mention here. When you have cultivated the habit of observation involved in studying the reciprocal relations of words and ideas in the way I have recommended, it is not difficult to apply the same method to the study of constructions. For some reason, too, syntax seems not to cause the pupils or their teachers so much trouble as the other things. At all events, the boys who came to college when I was teaching at Harvard were better equipped in regard to syntax than in regard to forms or meanings or word-arrangement. To this last I want to call particular attention. I remember being given in my own school days the rather impossible precept to let the order take care of itself until I had learned to manage the other things, which meant, I suppose, that if I put my subject first and verb last the intervening part of the sentence was of secondary importance. Considerable study of the subject has convinced me that both parts of this doctrine are not only erroneous but viciously disastrous. I have been for some time gathering statistics for an exposition of my views on Latin order in general, which I hope to publish by and by, and these statistics show an extraordinary lack of foundation for the subject—first verb—last theory. Fortunately this theory is no longer held in the

honor it was once, though I believe it is still pretty generally taught. But the special point that I want to consider now is the possibility of extracting from the undeniably complicated phenomena of the word-arrangement practiced by the Latin writers some basic principle so simple that it can be readily understood by a beginner and so comprehensive that it is of real value in elementary work.

We all know that the Latin writers had a way of using the order in which they placed their words as a means of marking emphasis at once effectively and delicately in numerous instances, but few teachers reflect how greatly it tends to help a pupil to write Latin that has a Roman ring and how much it clears his vision of the Latin he reads if he is taught always to consider the thought he is going to express by two words as made up of two parts, and to decide which part he wishes to direct the readers's or hearer's attention to more vigorously. He should understand that if he says, *Marcellus ridet*, he means MARCELLUS not Cicero or Lentulus or anybody else, is laughing; if he says *ridet Marcellus*, he means Marcellus is LAUGHING, not singing or sighing or what not, and that a similar thing is true according as he says *Marcello ignoverat* or *ignoverat Marcello*—that it makes no difference whether Marcellus is subject or not. If there are any of my readers to whom it appears a new and possibly untrue proposition that it makes no difference whether Marcellus is subject or not, and who cling to the doctrine we used to be taught, that the position of emphasis for the subject in a Latin sentence was at the end, though for anything except the subject the first was the emphatic place, let me ask them to go to their Cæsars and see if they can detect any difference in kind or degree in the emphasis the great literary soldier puts upon his own name, according as he writes *Cæsari cum id nuntiatum esset*, or *Cæsar etsi intellegebat que de causa ea dicerentur*, or *Cæsar his de causis quas commemoravi Rhenum transire decreverat*, or *Cæsari omnia uno tempore erant agenda*, and so on. Let the pupil be taught that, in the same way, if he says, *fratris liber*, he means his BROTHER'S book, not his sister's or his

father's, but if he says *liber fratris*, he means his brother's BOOK, not his cap or his bicycle; that *fortiter pugnans* means "they are fighting BRAVELY," *pugnans fortiter*, "they ARE FIGHTING bravely," *statua aurea*, is a golden STATUE, not a gold ring, for instance, *aurea statue*, a GOLD statue, not a bronze one. When our complex idea is expressed by an adjective and a noun, as in this last example, a further complication arises, which needs a little deeper study. If we speak of a GOLD statue, emphasizing the adjective, we are contrasting a certain kind of statue with other kinds, if we say a gold STATUE, we are contrasting an object made of gold with objects made of other materials. We may, however, not care to mark either of these contrasts, but only wish to characterize the subject of our thought as a sort of composite entity. When we speak of a brick house, we may not be thinking of its material particularly or of its function as a particular kind of building, but simply wishing to present to the mind a picture of the object known as a brick house. Here there would seem to be a bad difficulty for our incipient Latinist, if the Romans had not done with their word-arrangement in such cases just what we do with our intonation. When we combine an adjective and a noun thus into a unit of expression we put a slight stress of voice upon the noun to mark the unity, and the Romans did precisely the analogous thing in placing the noun before the adjective under such circumstances—as when they applied the words *vir clarissimus* to a man as a mere title of courtesy. The best working rule for the pupil is, therefore, "Unless you want to make your adjective distinctly emphatic, place it after its noun."

Expressions consisting of three or more words were arranged on the same principle, though unless they are very simple they require keener observation, because our only graphic means of illustrating various shades of emphasis—stress of voice or underlining or difference of type—are not delicate enough for many fine distinctions. Still it is not difficult for the pupil to appreciate the principle as applied to such a sentence as *heri pueri ab urbe venerunt*, and it is excellent practice for him to



arrange such sentences in different orders and study the effect. Luckily for him, also, sentences or clauses consisting of more than three or four words are usually made up, not of words strung along separately, as in the example just given, but of words grouped together into phrases, the phrases being strung along as the units of the sentence, so to speak, like the single words in the example. The problem for the pupil is, therefore, first to arrange the separate words in their phases according to the principle I have outlined, and then practically the same considerations will guide him towards giving his phrases a proper sequence in the sentence that guide him in arranging adverbial or prepositional expressions and subordinate clauses in an English sentence. He will, of course, be taught the corollaries of the periodic structure so dear to the Romans, namely, the habit of putting a purpose clause or a clause of cause before the main clause, the tendency of the verb to be unemphatic and close the sentence, and similar matters. The works of Cæsar furnish a splendid opportunity for the study of the way in which thinking in periods causes one to cast the least emphatic part of one's thought into verb form. In the nature of the case, the verb, as the word marking an action, completes the sense of what is said and so finishes the period, unless some word like *ita* or *tantus*, or some adjective needing a noun, or some other suggestion of incompleteness shows that more is to follow. Therefore, in a periodic style the color tends to crowd forward into the other words, and the verb is apt to have little to do except to perform its finishing office. The pupil should be especially taught to notice that it never stands last when it has even slight emphasis upon it.

When the theory and management of phrases and of the period have become more or less familiar it is not a very long step to the twining of sentences together by a proper use of words like *autem*, *quidem*, *vero*, *igitur* (too often, alas, unknown quantities to even the better class of pupils), and especially by choosing for the emphatic idea of the succeeding sentence one which forms a natural transition from the thought in the latter



part of the preceding sentence. This involves, of course, a little maturity of mind, but it is vastly easier to learn if one is trained from the start in what I have called the basic principle of Latin word-arrangement than if one approaches sentences in general with the notion that the subject is to stand first and the verb last, or with any other rule of order based upon purely grammatical considerations.

HENRY PREBLE

## OUTLOOK NOTES

IN THE February *Atlantic Monthly*, Professor Hugo Münsterberg, in an article entitled "Danger from Experimental Psychology," takes great pains to declare that experimental

**PSYCHOLOGY  
AND  
PEDAGOGY** psychology has nothing to contribute to the art of teaching. In his judgment, it is not surprising, but

deplorable, that "laboratories have become for teachers the ideal goals, and that experimenting with children has become the teachers' sport." "All hope for pedagogics on a basis of mathematically exact psychology is and will be a perfect delusion." Professor Münsterberg's words are strong words and good words. The pity is that there is no one to whom they apply. There is no large body of teachers sportively devoting their leisure hours to idle experimenting with children; nor are we acquainted with any who have much faith in a "mathematically exact psychology." No doubt, Professor Münsterberg intends to reprove some of the so-called child-study methods. From his conning tower in the psychological laboratory at Harvard he has incidentally discovered some activity among teachers, and has quite naturally supposed that it was all caused by interest in the science he himself represents; but such is not at all the case. Teachers, instead of having more faith in psychology, are having rather less. With the aid of physiology, hygiene, and sociology, they are looking for a true pedagogy, having discovered, long before Professor Münsterberg told them the fact, that psychology has little aid to give them.

C. H. THURBER

## BOOK REVIEWS

*Select Documents of United States History.* By WILLIAM MACDONALD. The Macmillan Company, 1898. Pp. xiii + 465. Price \$2.25.

This title at once prompts the inquiry whether Professor Macdonald's purpose had not already found satisfactory accomplishment in some one of the previously published collections such as Preston's *Documents*, or the American History or the Old South Leaflets. The discovery of the scope of his work at once answers this in the negative, for confining himself between 1776 and 1861, he covers a much narrower period than they do, and within this period furnishes a much greater amount of material, presenting in all in chronological arrangement the texts in whole or in part of ninety-seven documents.

It is conceded that the selection of this number from the great mass of legislative acts, treaties, messages, reports, etc., is a task in the performance of which no two persons are likely to agree completely. Yet many readers will surely notice with regret that the period between 1787 and 1700, the time of making and adopting the Constitution, is illuminated by no more than the Ordinance of 1787 and the Constitution, both already easily accessible. It will be wished, too, that the period covered had been so extended as to include reconstruction, the difficulties of which for the average student an opportunity to study the sources might remove.

On the other hand, the list seems to include nothing without value enough to justify its presence in the collection and contains very many documents hitherto practically out of reach of the student. As the preface points out, tariff acts, acts relating to the organization of the department of government, and party platforms have been omitted altogether. Only one decision of the supreme court appears, that in the Dred Scott case, and of speeches in Congress from only one are extracts made, the Webster-Hayne debate. In very many cases the entire document is reproduced, and where omissions occur they are plainly indicated. To each selection are prefixed an explanatory note

and a select bibliography made commendably definite by page references.

Of real value is the nine-page index in spite of the fourteen pages of advertisements with which the publishers see fit to end the book to the certain annoyance of users of that part of it. The general excellence of the topography and arrangement, the judicious generosity with which the selections have been made and the accuracy with which they have been reproduced make this book a valuable addition to the source-material now accessible to the student of history.

WAYLAND J. CHASE

MORGAN PARK ACADEMY

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*Arnold of Rugby.* Edited by J. J. FINDLAY. The Macmillian Company, New York. \$1.50.

AT this time when secondary education has so strongly seized upon public thought and attention it is altogether fitting to bring out a new presentation of the life and ideals of the prince, or perhaps more fittingly, the bishop of all schoolmasters who toil under Anglo-Saxon skies. Arnold of Rugby is known by far too many only as a strong and gracious spirit felt but scarcely seen in Tom Brown of Rugby. Stanley's matchless biography seems, in a sense, to belong to a past generation. Even the greatest books, except the few very greatest, have their day and pass away, unless they find editors and publishers to bring them forth again in new garb that catches the fancy of a new generation. Dr. Findlay and his publishers have, therefore, done well in presenting this fine account of England's great schoolmaster to the schoolmen of today.

The editor has not made this book for the sake of making a book. His work shows thought, sympathy and discrimination. His biographical sketch of Arnold leaves a strong and eloquent picture on the reader's mind. Stanley's *Life of Arnold* is drawn upon to furnish the chapter on School-life at Rugby. Many of Dr. Arnold's sermons are given complete, those which best show his attitude toward boys and give us most knowledge of the secret of the power over them. There are, too, not a few letters on educational topics, written for the most part to friends and in answer to some specific query. The reading of these letters will furnish many a headmaster and principal the right thing to say in not a few of the perplexing situations that are sure to

come. The final chapter of the book consists of extracts from Arnold's educational writings. He is not much known in this field, and indeed, did not aim to be. In education he was more a doer of deeds than a speaker of words. But when he spoke he spoke wisely. To scholars by no means the least valuable feature of the work is the classified bibliography, covering not only Arnold's own writings but also all that is worthy or significant concerning Arnold, his work and his time.

C. H. THURBER

*Bennett's Latin Composition.* Allyn & Bacon.

THIS little book, which has been waited for with so much interest by all secondary teachers of Latin, marks a distinct and emphatic reaction from the tendencies of the past few years in Latin prose composition.

It is a clear and well-nigh unqualified return to the teachings and methods of the older school, as represented by Allen's and Jones' prose books, and puts the stamp of at least indirect dissent upon the attempts to teach Latin prose by the wholesale. To be sure, there are, at intervals, through the book, continuous passages for translation into Latin, sufficient, perhaps, to give the pupil drill in writing connected discourse; but the main justification for the book rests undoubtedly on the feeling that the necessary prerequisite for the translation of continuous prose lies in a thorough and systematic presentation of the syntactical principles and idiomatic peculiarities of the language, combined with sufficient practical drill to fix them permanently and productively in the minds of the pupils.

For the revival of this view in so marked a way, we believe every experienced secondary teacher may return thanks, and it is especial cause for gratification that the lead in the reaction has been taken by so scholarly and so authoritative a writer as Professor Bennett.

The theory that ability to write Latin prose could be acquired solely from the translation of exercises and passages based on the text, has not, we think it may be safely said, proved as satisfactory as was hoped, and of late the feeling has undoubtedly been gaining ground that a return to traditional methods, either in whole or in part, was inevitable. Professor Bennett's book seems to be an expression of that feeling, and it is, therefore, from a merely historical point of view, very interesting as foreshadowing the end of at least the exclusive use of the text-method of teaching Latin prose.

Whether the book under consideration is as successful from a practical point of view as it is commendable from a theoretical is another question, and one which the actual test will, perhaps, alone answer.

It is almost needless to say that the book is a most careful and scholarly piece of work, and covers, in a very thorough and accurate way, the field of secondary prose instruction. The *Remarks*, found in almost every chapter, are especially suggestive and helpful. In one respect only does it seem to us the book is open to serious criticism, and that is in the fact that the passages chosen for continuous translation are so exclusively Ciceronian in character and content that they are ill-adapted to pupils reading Cæsar or Nepos. Pupils begin Latin prose in their Cæsar year, and as a considerable portion of the prose work must be covered in that period, would it not have been desirable if the earlier continuous passages had been based on Cæsar, or at least had some connection with Cæsarian themes?

To ask a boy who is reading of the war with the Helvetians, and whose mind—so far at least as his Latin interests are concerned—is filled with that interesting and dramatic tale—to ask such a boy to translate into Latin a passage having to do with Roscius of Ameria or The Career of Verres is to transfer him forcibly and prematurely into a region which is foreign and strange, and consequently deadening to his interest and enthusiasm.

Not but that these exercises and the others of like character in the book are choice and practicable—in their place. The only point is that they are out of place at the time at which the pupil meets them.

We may be mistake in this criticism, but at present we feel that this consideration will be, in the minds of many secondary teachers, a very serious impediment to the adoption of the book.

JAMES HUGH HARRIS

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*Selection from L'Honnond's Viri Romæ and Cornelius Nepos*, edited  
by MESSRS. JOHN P. BUCHANAN and R. A. MINCKWITZ.  
Maynard, Merrill & Co.

THIS book certainly marks another step in advance for a movement now happily started in the right direction. It seems that at last our text-books prepared for the second year's work in Latin are to have the unnecessary matter eliminated. That is what the editors have suc-

ceeded in doing in the little volume just recently from the press. From start to finish there is clear evidence of a firm determination to introduce nothing except which will be intelligible and helpful to pupils of the age and attainments that use such a book. Without intending to be unkind, it is my opinion that very many former editions of the same and similar selections have suffered from the desire of young editors to make a show of erudition. Glancing over a number of editions before me, I find explanations of abstruse points in etymology, syntax and Roman life that are of no importance and of but very little, if any, interest to the pupil.

In trying to provide a bridge for the chasm that plainly exists between the beginner's Latin books and *Cæsar*, Messrs. Buchanan and Minckwitz have so planned the helps that the pupil may go on reading his author with grammatical equipment gained in his first year's work. A very great mistake that is almost universally made in the transition to the second year's work, is to place one of the standard Latin grammars in the child's hands and compel him to relearn the rules in the more complete and technical statements of the manual. The drudgery thus imposed crowds out any enthusiasm the child may have for his Latin from a literary standpoint. By omitting grammatical references and using only simple terms in the notes, such as are found in beginning books, the little volume makes it possible for the pupil to pass right on to a rapid and appreciative reading of Latin.

Three maps accompany the selections, one each of Italy, Gaul, and Rome. The last named map seems to me to be of great value and very properly introduced in such a work.

In an edition that has so much to commend we certainly should be willing to overlook a few imperfections. That it has some imperfections is of course to be expected. Some are certainly to be found in the notes where the desire to be simple and direct sometimes leads to a meagerness or incompleteness of statement where a little more information is desirable and would be helpful to a young pupil.

The press work, by J. J. Little & Co., of New York, is tastefully done, and adds much to the attractiveness of the book.

T. L. COMPARETTE

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

## CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

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*Report of the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric* is the title of a pamphlet on college and secondary English recently published by Harvard University. It treats exclusively of the subject as taught in preparatory schools, and contains many points, which, in a suggestive way, render it invaluable. Every teachershould read it carefully, for it bears upon the teaching of all branches. Even those who cannot agree with the conclusions and suggestions contained in it will find there much that is worthy of consideration.

The report is based upon material furnished by 1300 papers written by as many college students upon the good and bad aspects of their own early trainings in English, as seen in the light of their university studies. Their point of view is necessarily that of Harvard. The committee has wisely included in their report a large number of these papers from which the reader may draw his own conclusions. Indeed, for one who is studying methods and results in teaching English, they form the most important part of the pamphlet.

Coöperation is the chief point insisted upon in the report—coöperation on the part of teachers of other subjects with those of English. This is to be accomplished by requiring carefully written translations of both ancient and modern languages once or twice a week, and by papers in history, mathematics, and other subjects. This would make English an incidental as well as a direct study, so that the method would be beneficial to the pupil in a twofold manner. Language teachers, especially must be pressed into service. "The present slovenly, inexact oral method of rendering the classics into that lazy, mongrel dialect, 'Translation English,' can, and, as the examination papers show, should give way, at least in part, to daily written work." This would mean more work for both pupils and teachers, but it is at least worthy of a fair trial at the hands of language instructors. Good could not fail to result, to the pupils knowledge both of his mother tongue, and of the language being primarily studied. It would seem, too, that this method might do much towards



removing the drudgery and prejudice in and against which English teachers are obliged to work. Secondary school students ought to write every day, if they are to know how to express themselves by the time they graduate from college; and the English teacher has neither time or energy to give this drill, unless assisted by his fellow workers.

Outside of a few really admirable schools, the committee finds two equally bad systems of preparatory English work. Either the subject is ignored, or the instructor attempts too advanced work. For the former there can no longer be any excuse. The school which does not teach English, after all the recent discussion of the subject, should be boycotted by parents and colleges. The latter evil cannot be so easily overcome. Ignorance of methods on the part of English teachers, and a lack of unity among the colleges and universities in their requirements for entrance examinations in English, are difficulties that must be done away with before we may talk seriously of ideal courses in preparatory English.

What the Harvard committee thinks about the scope of secondary instruction in English is seen in the following extract. "It is the University, and not the Preparatory School, which has to do with 'style' and 'individuality,' 'mass, coherence and form,' with, in a word, that much abused and misused branch of study known in educational parlance as 'Rhetoric.' The province of preparatory schools is to train the scholar, boy or girl, and train him or her thoroughly, in what can only be described as the elements and rudiments of written expression,—they should teach facile, clear penmanship, correct spelling, simple grammatical construction, and neat workmanlike mechanical execution." When this is done, the student will be able to "talk with the pen as well as with the tongue." This is not an inspiring task, but is it not the one which every good English teacher should set for himself?

L. C. SMITH

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## NOTES

THE next meeting of the National Congress of Mothers will be held in Washington, D. C., beginning May 2 and ending May 7, 1898.

*European History Studies* No 5, for January 1898 (J. H. Miller, publisher), treats of the Achaean League, and presents in twelve pages selections made by Fred. Morrow Fling from Polybius. The divisions of his subjects are the

character of the league, the officers, the council, the assembly, the army, and the navy.

THE JUNE SCHOOL REVIEW will contain the full, official report of the Classical Conference, to be held in Ann Arbor, March 31 and April 1, 1898.

THE Michigan State Schoolmasters' Club will hold its spring meeting at Ann Arbor April 1 and 2. On March 31 and April 1 the classical conference will meet at the same place, meeting with the club on Friday. The conference will draw a large number of the leading classical teachers from all sections of the country. The club offers an exceptionally fine programme, while a classical play and a reception by the faculty of the University of Michigan are among the features arranged for the evening entertainments.

A SYLLABUS of *Lectures on European History*, by Andrew Stephenson (The Inland Publishing Company, pp. xxi + 343. Price \$1.50), presents in outline forty-eight lectures upon the history of Europe from the time of Augustus to 1890. Lecture skeletons though these are, there has been left adhering to them some flesh in the form of vivid description, accurate characterization, and helpful suggestion. Authorities, sources, and illustrative literature in English, French, German, and Latin are given, most often with page references.

PROFESSOR HENRY G. PEARSON of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has issued a book on theme writing, called *Freshman Composition*. The book was issued as a text-book to be used by students who are just beginning to write compositions, but who are supposed to have had already some instruction in rhetoric. The author commends practical work in preference to theoretical study, and his book is an attempt to guide the student in actual theme writing. The suggestions are concise and to the point. (50c. D. C. Heath & Co.)

CARLYLE'S *Heroes and Hero-Worship* appears in an attractive form from the press of the Macmillan Company, for whom Mrs. Annie Russell Marble has acted as editor. An introduction gives a survey of the life and literary activity of the Seer of Chelsea, and copious notes and summaries of the different lectures go far to remove the difficulties, with which the text, because of the varied allusions and quotations, abounds. The general reading public, as well as students in secondary school and college will find the editor's work of real advantage.

AN important principle, of interest to others than teachers, is treated in "The Economy in High Wages for Teachers," by John Davidson in the February *Educational Review*. Other leading articles in that number are: "Functions of the State Touching Education," by Andrew S. Draper; "Religious Instruction in American Schools," by Levi Seeley; "Student

Life at Jena," by Stuart H. Rowe; "The Public School and Community Life," by James K. Paulding; "American Graduate Schools," by Hjalmar Edgren; and "History in the German Gymnasias," by Lucy H. Salmon.

THE next issue of the SCHOOL REVIEW will contain the full, official report of the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, to be held in the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, April 1 and 2.

*European History Studies* No. 4 (pp. 14, J. H. Miller) presents selections made from Arrian's *Anabasis* by Fred Morrow Fling, and is intended to show Alexander's methods of warfare. A critical statement of Arrian's sources of information introduces selections relating to evolutions of the phalanx, the battle of Issus, the siege of Gaza, the pursuit of Darius, the capture of the Sogdian Rock, Alexander wounded, and Alexander's recovery.

THE January, 1898, issue of the *American History Studies* (pp. 23, J. H. Miller, publisher), entitled "Interpretation of the Constitution: Nationality," treats of implied powers, the location of sovereignty, acquisition of territory, and aristocracy versus democracy. On the first of these topics H. W. Caldwell presents selections from Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison, and Marshall. The Kentucky resolutions of 1798 and 1799, James Wilson, Josiah Quincy, the Hartford Convention and Abraham Lincoln are the principal sources drawn for the second subject; Jefferson and Webster for the third, and Fisher Ames and Jefferson for the last.

*American History Studies* No. 5 (pp. 27, J. H. Miller), is entitled "Steps in the Formation of the United States Constitution," and consists of selections made by H. W. Caldwell from the utterances and writings of Thomas Paine, Washington, and Jefferson, from Madison's Journal of the Constitutional Convention, from Virginia and Maryland's instructions to delegates to the first Continental Congress, from the non-importation agreement, and from Elliot's Debates.

Accompanying each of these studies are sets of questions designed to guide the student in the interpretation of the passages quoted.

AN association has been formed in New York state called the Sheldon Memorial Association, the object of which is to provide a suitable memorial for the late Dr. Edward A. Sheldon, for many years the principal of the Oswego Normal School. The association thinks that the most practicable plan of honoring Dr. Sheldon's memory would be to erect a marble statue in the capitol or a bronze statue at the main entrance of the capitol grounds. The estimated cost of such a memorial is ten thousand dollars. Contributions are requested from all sources, though a special appeal is to be made to the pupils of the public schools in New York state. Individual contributions may be made direct to the treasurer, Hon. George B. Sloan, Oswego, New York.

WITH the issue of Powers' *English and the Reformation* (142 pp.), the Scribners announce their new series, entitled, "The Oxford Manuals of English History." Of convenient size and attractive appearance this series of six is designed to cover the whole field of English history from 55 B. C. to 1832, and the treatment is such that the different numbers of it may be read together for a survey of the entire period or used with advantage separately for the special epoch each covers. In this number the author has added to the topics, commonly treated in text-books, enough new matter of a constitutional and social sort to make an interesting and fresh presentation, and a map, battle plans, genealogies, and index complete the ensemble of an excellent little handbook.

WE HAVE received from Principal Edward L. Harris, of the Central High School, Cleveland, a table of special directions to be followed in the preparation of students for fourteen of the leading colleges and technical schools of the country, the selections having been evidently made to cover those institutions to which graduates from the Central High School most frequently go. The directions are in concrete printed form, just such as a principal would need to give to every student in advising him which course to take in the high school and what special deviations to make in order to prepare for a given college. The idea is an excellent one. Such a table would save the principal of every large high school much labor, and by its use misunderstandings on the part of teachers and pupils could be avoided.

*Imperial Germany*, by Sidney Whitman. Flood & Vincent, publishers. First published in England in 1888, this book heads the Chautauqua list of required literature for 1897. Brought down to date, it has in this new edition a very considerably increased value because of the numerous and excellent reproductions of photographs of persons and places. The scope of the work is comprehensive, for most of the elements of national activity are considered: the intellectual life and education, the government, the army, the aristocracy, society and family life, industry and the press, all are given extended notice, and to Bismarck an entire chapter is devoted. Both the favor which this book met in its earlier edition and the prominence of Germany's part in the world's politics of today guarantee for it value and popularity.

MR. W. J. SHEARER, superintendent of schools at Elizabeth, N. J., the author of the article on the "Lockstep in the Public School," which appeared recently in the *Atlantic Monthly*, has issued to the educational press a further statement of the principles which govern his system. Doubtless all principals and teachers interested can secure this pamphlet from Mr. Shearer by writing to him and enclosing stamp. It seems that a certificate is issued to pupils, which reads as follows: "This is to certify that since the present

plan of grading and promoting was introduced, John Smith has gained — months and is that far ahead of former classmates." Mr. Shearer states that during the past two years more than 80 per cent. of the pupils have received these certificates; that is to say, that more than eighty pupils are ahead of their former classmates. At the first glance, these figures are somewhat puzzling, and seem to point to the old parable of lifting one's self over the fence by tugging at one's boot-straps.

THE annual report of the secretary of the University of the State of New York to the regents contains a new feature of general interest in a large map of the state 16 by 22 inches, with the location of each institution in the university indicated graphically. The 30 colleges and universities are marked by small black squares, the 120 academies by triangles point down, the 480 high schools by triangles with point up, the 7 law schools by the letter L, the 14 theological schools by T, the 49 other professional and special schools by S, while the 138 libraries thus far formally admitted to the university are marked by small crosses. The map shows that of these 838 institutions in the university, the City of New York has 51, Brooklyn 19, Buffalo 17, Rochester 7, Albany 16, Syracuse 7, Troy 9.

No. 4, VOL. IV, of *Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History*, edited by Arthur C. Howland and published by the department of history of the University of Pennsylvania, is entitled "Ordeals, Compurgation, Excommunication, and Interdict." In thirty-four pages are given selections which vividly reveal the use of these methods of trial and punishment and the theories behind their use. Under each subject the number of selections is sufficient both with respect to country and time to show the wide extent of the beliefs upon which these practices were based and the modifications and changes they underwent. In this number, as well as in all the others of this scholarly and highly useful series there are explanatory and bibliographical notes.

AN American visitor to England who spends some little time in the country, says J. N. Larned in the *March Atlantic*, can hardly fail to become conscious of three serious facts: (1) That there is a strong class-feeling against much education for those who are looked on as underlings and servants—a feeling more prevalent and more pronounced than the shamefaced sentiment of like meanness that is whispered in some snobbish American circles. (2) That the "school rate" seems to be the most begrudged of English taxes, the most sharply criticised, the most grumbled at; and this to a degree for which there seems nothing comparable in America. (3) That the opposition to secular schools, fostered by the church and ostensibly actuated by a desire for religious instruction in schools, is largely supported in reality by the two sentiments indicated above. . . . Looking, therefore, to the increasingly democratic conditions that are inevitable in England, the reluctance and

factionousness of disposition, that appear among its citizens touching the vital matter of popular education, are ominous of evil to the nation, and gravely lessen its chance of holding, under the reign of democracy, the high place to which it rose under an aristocratic régime.

AMONG the best of the exchanges of the SCHOOL REVIEW is the *Journal of Pedagogy*, for some time published at Binghamton, N. Y. We are glad to welcome with the January number a larger and handsomer publication, bearing the same name and having the same editor; Dr. Leonard, has now become dean of the Faculty of Arts at the Syracuse University, and the publication office of the *Journal of Pedagogy* is consequently changed from Binghamton to Syracuse. The January number contains articles by Professors M. V. O'Shea, Starr W. Cutting, Ralph S. Tarr, and Presidents C. W. Eliot and Isaac Sharpless. The editorials deal most ably with the question of college entrance English, and with the question of pedagogy as a subject for college and university study. The *Journal* is published quarterly.

*Roman Life in Pliny's Time* by Maurice Pellison, translated from the French by Maud Wilkinson (pp. xviii + 315, Flood and Vincent), is one of the required books of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle for 1897-8. The introduction by Frank Justus Miller presents those leading characteristics of the Romans which both made sure Rome's greatness and predestined her to decay. The chapters which follow treat in interesting style of education, women and marriage, the Roman house, servants, business ideas and methods, the bar, society amusements, traveling, the growing popularity of private life, and Pliny's correspondence. On many of these subjects the younger Pliny is permitted to speak for himself, as are also Martial, Juvenal, and other Romans of that age.

A valuable feature of the book is its numerous and excellent illustrations, most of which are reproductions of photographs of places, paintings, statues, and buildings.

THE committee appointed by the Modern Language Association of America to study the subject of a national standard of preparatory requirements has issued, through its chairman, Professor Calvin Thomas, of Columbia University, a circular to teachers of French and German, and to friends of these studies, seeking information upon which to base the report of the committee. After detailed questions as to the proportion of time, length of recitation, proportion of boys to girls studying, fraction of recitation time devoted on the average to colloquial practice, grammatical drill per English, translation into English, translation from English, reading without translation, text-books, and literature read—the circular, in the second part, presents a series of pedagogical questions which state the problems connected with this subject so thoroughly that they will be of interest to many of our readers. They are as follows:

1. How many and what foreign languages (ancient and modern) do you think it advisable that a pupil should take up in the course of his secondary-school training, and what relative amount of time should be given to each?

2. Is there good reason for making the instruction in German and French different according as the pupil is, or is not, intending to go to college?

3. How much time is needed, in the secondary school, to impart such a reading knowledge of French as will be readily available for a tool in the pursuit of other studies?

How much for German?

4. Should the colleges insist upon at least two years of French or German (where a modern language is required at all), or should one-year courses still be accepted as better than nothing?

5. Given 800 recitation periods for French and German together, how would you divide the time between the two languages?

The same for a total of 600 periods?

The same for a total of 400 periods?

6. To what extent should published lists of texts to be read be suggestive merely, and to what extent prescriptive?

7. It has been proposed, by way of escape from the existing chaos, to create and recognize for the country at large three grades of modern-language preparation. Elementary (say 400 recitation-periods), Intermediate (say 600), and Advanced (say 800); to make the instruction the best possible for the pupil within the time allotted, and then to ask the colleges to state their requirements in terms of the national grades. Do you favor this plan? If so, will you outline your views as to what the work of each grade should be?

It is to be hoped that the committee will receive cordial and painstaking assistance from the teachers of modern languages throughout the country, in order that the report presented may be based on ample information. Certainly the committee has undertaken the study in a thorough and systematic way, and its grasp of the problem is indicated clearly by the questions it has propounded to itself for solution.

A REAL service has been rendered the teachers of geometry in this country by the translations of Professor Klein's lectures on "Famous Problems in Elementary Geometry." (Ginn & Co.—Translated by W. W. Beman and D. G. Smith.) It is of the utmost importance to the teacher to know the results of modern investigations along these lines, and while very few would be able to search out these results from their original sources, none need fail to be enlightened by the clear and single presentations which Professor Klein has given. And, further, one could hardly read this little book without being charmed by the style of the author, convinced of the wonderful power of modern analysis, and possessed of a desire to know more of its methods and developments.

The three problems considered are: *the duplication of the cube, the trisection of an arbitrary angle, and the quadrature of the circle*, which became famous because of the unsuccessful attempts to solve them by means of the straightedge and compasses, and the consequent question as to whether such



solutions were possible. Elementary geometry has no answer to this question. It is solved only by algebra and the higher analysis.

Professor Klein shows how the language of algebra is made to answer these questions in terms of geometry, and proves the impossibility of all three constructions by means of rule and compasses alone. He shows, however, how the ancients used certain additional curves of higher order than the circle for solving these problems, and gives many valuable historical references to both ancient and modern researches along these lines.

Of special interest to the student is the second part, where is given an outline of proofs by Cantor, Lindermann & Hermite in reference to transcendental numbers, with particular application to  $e$ , the base of Napierian logarithms, and  $\Pi$ , the ratio of circumference to diameter of a circle.

THERE has been developed in France under the general direction of Monsieur F. Buisson, a most interesting plan of international pedagogical correspondence. Convinced that the establishment of an epistolary commerce between young teachers in different countries is a most valuable means of instruction not only in modern languages but in general culture, a number of young professors who have held scholarships under the ministry of public instruction have taken the initiative in organizing an international pedagogical correspondence between France and the other countries. The Editor of the *Manuel General de L'Instruction Primaire* has placed his pages at the disposal of a committee and in due time, after sufficient letters have been exchanged, promises to publish some of the most interesting ones. There must be many readers of the SCHOOL REVIEW who would enjoy and appreciate being in regular correspondence with some French scholar. It would be an unquestionable aid and stimulus as well as a delightful practice. If any of our readers who desire to enter into this arrangement will kindly forward their names to the Editor of the SCHOOL REVIEW he will in turn send the names to the representative of the French committee with whom he is in correspondence. It is understood that the French teacher will write in French and the American teacher write in English.

In connection with this movement it may be well to give just a word as to its origin. Monsieur M. Mieille, professor in the normal school at Draguignan, with the aid of the *Revue Universitaire* in France and the *Review of Reviews* in England, succeeded in organizing an exchange of letters between the young people of the two countries who were about of the same age and engaged in the same class of studies, as, for example, a student in the French lycée and a pupil in Rugby. These two enter into correspondence, telling each other about their studies, their plays, their vacations, and all the small events of school life which are so unlike in the two countries. They write each in his own language, so that each has the best opportunity to prepare a composition and a translation with quite a different interest from that that



they take in the class work. This is a direct advantage for the study of language and there are many other advantages which will be readily understood without enumeration. Between young people, acquaintances are soon made, and more than once more lasting relations have followed from this first epistolary interchange. They will go to see each other, will meet at some exposition or other, and will, perhaps, finally send the children from one family to the other for a sojourn of a few weeks. Out of this plan for schoolboys has grown the larger plan for interchange among teachers. The schoolboy plan seems better adapted to success between France and England than between France and the United States, but the plan for adults ought to work equally well in either case.

An interesting special study on Equal Education in Connecticut, a plea for State Education, has been prepared by Mr. W. Scott, temporary secretary of the Connecticut committee for furtherance of equal education. A study is made of the area, population and means of communication in the state, the purpose being to show that by concentration in administration and the use of its exceptional facilities of intercommunication Connecticut may secure to all its youth the advantages which are now obtained only in the best of the great cities, conducting its public-school work in short as if it were a great city covering a wide area but having abundant facilities for intercommunication. The demand for equal education is theoretically a just one; practically the difficulties are very great. In such a closely settled and compact state as Connecticut an experiment in this direction would have the best chances of success and will certainly be watched with very great interest. A typical case of inequality is described in the following paragraph which, with change of name, suits a good many parts of the country as well as Connecticut:

"Take another case. Here are a New Haven and a Granby boy. The New Haven lad enjoys opportunities similar to those we have described in Hartford, probably few, if any, cities do more for their youth in the limits proposed for public education than the two cities named. The boy in Granby lives in a remote town. It is a scattered, farming community. We cannot expect his town to do for him in schooling what New Haven does for its boys. He may go to the district school, such as it is. We may remark that it is often conducted on methods that would ruin any business enterprise in an incredibly short time. If the management changed every winter and summer, you would look for nothing but disaster. After the Granby boy has his taste of the district school he may shift for himself as he is best able. Here is an inequality of educational advantage that must strike one who fairly considers it. Where lies the difficulty? It is in the supremacy of the local or town idea in education. Public education, however, assumes to be a matter of so great moment as to take its name from the state, and to require state supervision and support.

## NEW PUBLICATIONS

- Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*, with Introduction and Notes by W. H. Carruth, Ph.D. Size  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$  in.; pp. 246. Price 50 cents. The Macmillan Company.
- The Modern Reader's Bible. A Series of Works from the Sacred Scriptures. Presented in Modern Literary Form. St. Matthew and St. Mark, and the General Epistles. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Richard G. Moulton. Size  $4 \times 5\frac{1}{2}$  in.; pp. 299. Price 50 cents. The Macmillan Company.
- Lincoln Literary Collection. Designed for School-room and Family Circle. By J. P. McCasky. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{3}{4}$  in.; pp. 576. American Book Company.
- A Mental Arithmetic. By William J. Milne, Ph.D., I.L.D. Cloth, 12mo, pp. 176. Price 35 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.
- Problems in the Psychology of Reading. By J. O. Quantz, Ph.D. Monograph Supplement to the Psychological Review. The Macmillan Company.
- Heath's Modern Language Series. Helbig's *Komödie auf der Hochschule*. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph.D. Size  $4\frac{3}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in.; pp. 134, board cover. Price 30 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.
- A School History of the United States. By John Bach McMaster. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in.; pp. 507. Price \$1. American Book Co.
- A History of the United States for Schools. By Wilbur F. Gordy. Size  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{4}$  in.; pp. 478. Price \$1. Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Selections from Washington, Lincoln, and Bryant. Edited, with Notes and Suggestions for the use of Grammar and High Schools. By Harry T. Nightingale. Stiff paper cover. Price 15 cents. Ainsworth & Co., Chicago.
- The Oxford Manuals of English History. Edited by C. W. C. Oman, M.A., F.S.A. England and the Reformation (A.D. 1485-1603). By G. W. Powers, M.A. Size  $4\frac{1}{4} \times 6\frac{3}{4}$  in.; pp. 143. Price 50 cents. Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Inductive Studies in Browning for Secondary Schools, Colleges, and Literature Clubs. By Hans C. Peterson, Ph.D. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{3}{4}$  in.; pp. 149. J. H. Miller, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- Essays on the Civil War and Reconstruction and Related Topics. By William Archibald Dunning, Ph.D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{3}{4}$  in.; pp. 376. Price \$2. The Macmillan Company.
- Practical Ethics. A Collection of Addresses and Essays. By Henry Sidgwick. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{3}{4}$  in.; pp. 260. Price \$1.50. The Macmillan Company.
- Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1776-1861. Edited, with Notes, by William MacDonald. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 8$  in.; pp. 465. Price \$2.25. The Macmillan Company.
- Principles of English Grammar for the Use of Schools. By G. R. Carpenter. Size  $4\frac{3}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in.; pp. 254. Price 75 cents. The Macmillan Company.
- Appletons' Home Reading Books. Edited by William T. Harris, A.M., LL.D. Division I—Natural History. *Crusoe's Island, A Bird Hunter's Story*. By Frederick A. Ober. Size  $4\frac{3}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in.; pp. xv+277. Price 65 cents. D. Appleton & Co.
- From September to June with Nature. By Minetta L. Warren; illustrated by Elizabeth A. Pickering. Size  $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$  in.; pp. 184. Price 35 cents. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
- The Great Educators. Edited by Nicholas Murray Butler. Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States. By B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D., LL.D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in.; pp. 326. Price \$1. Charles Scribner's Sons.

- The Religious Census of the State Universities and of the Presbyterian Colleges in the Collegiate Year 1896-7. Edited by Francis W. Kelsey. Pamphlet form; pp. 54. The "Michigan Presbyterian," 22 Witherell St., Detroit, Mich.
- Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of Auburn, N. Y., for the School Year ending July 31, 1897.
- Course of Study for the Common Schools of Illinois. Revised in 1897 by the County Superintendents' Section of the State Teachers' Association. Pp. 148. C. M. Parker, Publisher, Taylorville, Ill.
- A Text-Book of Elementary Botany, Including a Spring Flora. By W. A. Kellermann, Ph.D. Size  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$  in.; pp. 300. Price 90 cents. Eldredge & Brother, No. 17 North Seventh St., Philadelphia.
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